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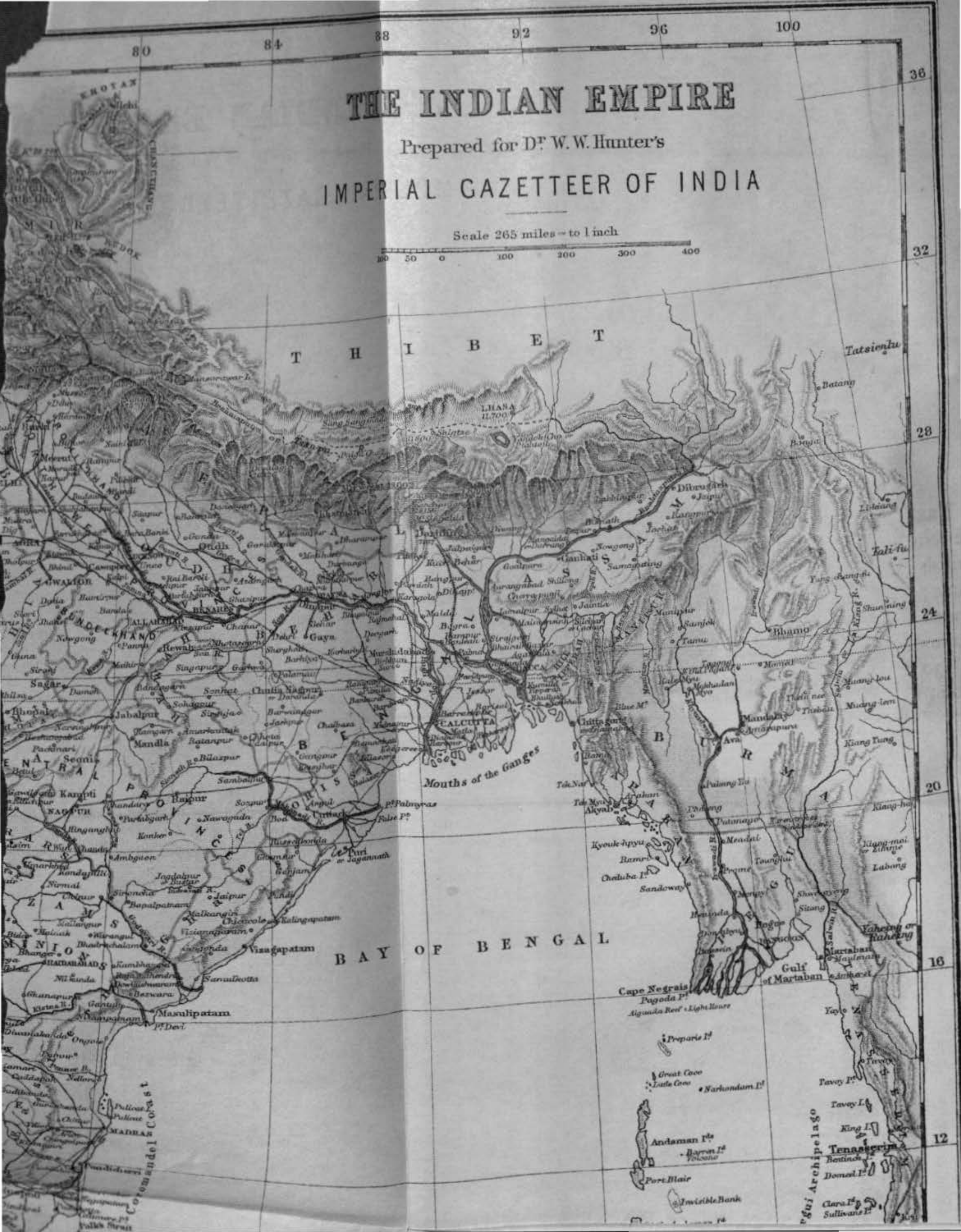
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VOLUME VII.

NAAF TO RANGMAGIRI.

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THE INDIAN EMPIRE
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IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA
Scale 265 miles = to 1 inch
100 50 0 100 200 300 400
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T H I B E T
LHASA
Tatsienlu
Batang
Dibrugarh
Bhamo
Mandalay
Ava
CALCUTTA
Mouths of the Ganges
Chittagong
Akyab
Arakan
BAY OF BENGAL
Gulf of Martaban
Cape Negrais
Pagoda Pt.
Preparis Id.
Great Coco
Little Coco
Narkondam Id.
Andaman Ids.
Barren Id. Volcano
Port Blair
Invisible Bank
Mergui Archipelago
Tenasserim
Tavoy Pt.
Tavoy Id.
King Id.
Domel Id.
Clara Id.
Sullivans Id.
Vizagapatam
Masulipatam
Coromandel Coast
MADRAS
Pulicat
Jabalpur
Bhopal
Raipur
Cuttack
Puri or Jagannath
False Pt.
Pt. Palmyras
Gaya
Benares
Allahabad
GWALIOR
Sagar
Kampti
Nagpur
Sambalpur
Bilaspur
Mandla
Manipur
Silchar
Gauhati
Nowgong
Shillong
Sandoway
Prome
Thayetmyo
Toungoo
Moulmein
Martaban
Kyouk-hpyu
Ramri
Cheduba Id.
Bassein

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME VII.

N

Naaf.—An arm of the Bay of Bengal, forming a portion of the western boundary of Akyab District, and separating the Province of British Burma from Chittagong in Bengal. 'Naaf' is the Bengalí name; to the Arakanese and Burmese the estuary is known as the Anouk-ngay. It is about 31 miles long and 3 miles broad at its mouth, shallowing considerably towards the head. Lat. 20° 45′ N., long. 92° 30′ E. The island of SHAHPURI protects its entrance to some extent from the monsoon, and finds a place in history as the immediate *casus belli* of the first Burmese war. In September 1823, a small British detachment, then occupying the island, was attacked by the Arakanese troops under the Rájá of Ramri, and this led on to the Burmese war in 1824-25. Numerous rocks and shoals render the entrance to the Naaf estuary dangerous. Ferry-boats ply regularly between Moung-daw, in Arakan, and the Chittagong side. Off the coast lie the uninhabited St. Martin's and Oyster Islands.

Naaf. — Township in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma; lying between the Naaf estuary on the west, the Ma-yú Hills on the east, and touching the Bay of Bengal towards the south. The northern portion is but sparsely inhabited, and is covered with forest; the central part is well cultivated; and the southern is a narrow, sandy tract, which forms good grazing ground for cattle. Naaf is divided into 10 revenue circles. Pop. (1877-78), 47,456; gross revenue, £10,762.

Naaf, North.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 7152; gross revenue, £2145.

Naaf, South.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2530; gross revenue, £839.

Nabadwíp.—Town in Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* NADIYA TOWN.

Nabaganga.—River of Bengal, an offshoot of the Mátábhánga in Nadiyá District. After entering Jessor on its western boundary, the river flows, first east and then south-east, past Jhanidah, Mágura, Naháta, Naldi, and Lakshmípása, till it meets the Madhumati on the extreme east of the District. The Nabaganga has long been completely shut up at its head, and cannot now be traced beyond a swamp 6 miles from its former source, which was at Dámurhuda. It is drying up year by year, and in the hot season is unnavigable. In December, however, boats of about 2 tons burthen can still pass up to Jhanidah.

Nábha.—One of the cis-Sutlej States under the political control of the Government of the Punjab, lying between 30° 17′ and 30° 40′ N. lat., and between 75° 50′ and 76° 20′ E. long. Area, 863 square miles; estimated pop. in 1876, 226,155. The ruling family is descended from Tiloka, the eldest son of Phul, a Sidhu Ját, who founded a village in the Nábha territory. The Rájá of Jínd (Jhínd) is descended from the same branch, and the Rájá of Patiála is descended from Ráma, second son of Phul. These three families are accordingly known as the Phulkián houses. The history of the State is of little importance until after Ranjít Sinh's cis-Sutlej campaigns of 1807-8, when it appeared that the Síkh conqueror would be satisfied with nothing less than absolute supremacy over the whole country to the north of the Jumna. On this, the Rájá of Nábha applied to the English for protection. He received Colonel Ochterlony on his arrival at Nábha with the utmost cordiality; and in May 1809, the State was formally taken under British protection, with the other States of Málwá and Sirhind. The Rájá Jaswant Sinh was a faithful ally of the British Government; but after his death, which occurred in 1840, his son, Rájá Devendra Sinh, at the time of the first Síkh war in 1845, sympathized with the Síkh invaders, and his conduct in regard to carriage and supplies required from him in accordance with treaty was dilatory and suspicious in the extreme. Previous to the battles of Múdki and Ferozsháh, only 32 camels and 681 *maunds* of grain were furnished, while after those actions supplies were sent in abundance, and after the final victory of Sobráon the whole resources of the Nábha State were placed at the disposal of the British Government. An investigation was made into the conduct of the chief, with the result that he was deposed and assigned a pension of Rs. 50,000 (say £5000) a year. His eldest son, Bharpur Sinh, was placed in power. At the time of the Mutiny in 1857, this Chief showed distinguished loyalty,

and was rewarded by grants of territory to the value of over £10,000, on the usual condition of political and military service at any time of general danger. Rájá Bharpur Sinh died in 1863, and was succeeded by his brother, Bhagwán Sinh, who died without issue in 1871. By the *sanad* of May 5, 1860, it was provided that, in a case of failure of male heirs to any one of the three Phulkián houses, a successor should be chosen, from among the descendants of Phul, by the two other chiefs and the representative of the British Government. Accordingly Híra Sinh, the present Rájá, a *jágírdár* of Jínd, but of the same family as the late ruler, was then selected as his successor. He is a Síkh of the Sidhu Ját tribe, and was born about 1843. The supposed gross revenue of the State in 1876 was £65,000; principal products—sugar, cereals, cotton, and tobacco. The estimated military force, including police, consists of 12 field and 10 other guns, 50 artillerymen, 560 cavalry, and 1250 infantry. A *nazarána* is payable to the British Government on the succession of collaterals to the Chiefship, and the Chief is bound to execute justice and promote the welfare of his subjects; to prevent *satí*, slavery, and female infanticide; to co-operate with the British Government against an enemy; to furnish supplies to troops; and to grant, free of expense, land required for railroads and imperial lines of roads. On the other hand, he is guaranteed by the Government in full and unreserved possession of his territory; and he has also full powers of life and death over his subjects. In the succession to the Chiefship the rule of primogeniture holds. The Rájá of Nábha is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. The chief town and only place of any importance in the State is Nábha.

Nabíganj.—Village in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces; on the Grand Trunk Road, about 24 miles east of Máinpuri. Lat. 27° 11′ 50″ N., long. 79° 25′ 25″ E.; pop. (1872), 1257. Police outpost; *sarái* (native inn).

Nabíganj.—Village and police station in the south-east of Sylhet District, Assam, on the Barák branch of the Surmá river. Considerable exports to Bengal of rice, *sítalpátí* mats, and oil-seeds.

Nabinagar.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 3 miles north-west of Láharpur town. Pop. (1869), 2649. Headquarters of the *tálukdár* of Katesar, whose residence is the only masonry building in the village. Founded about two centuries ago by Nabí Khán, son of Nawáb Sanjar Khán of Malihábád. Captured fifty or sixty years afterwards by Gaur Kshattriyas, who have held it ever since.

Nabisar.—Municipal town in the Umarkot *táluk* of the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency, Sind; situated in lat. 25° 4′ N., and long. 69° 41′ E., 20 miles south of Umarkot, and connected by road with Nawakot, Juda, Daraila, Samára, Harpar, Mitti, and Chelar. Headquarters of a *tappádár*. Contains a police *thána*, Government

school, *dharmsála*, and post office. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £206. Pop. (1872), 1514, chiefly engaged in agriculture, cattle-breeding, and an export trade in *ghí*. Manufactures of weaving and dyeing. Local and transit trade in cotton, cocoa-nuts, grain, camels, cattle, hides, sugar, tobacco, wool, and metals.

Nabog Nái.—Pass in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab, over the range of mountains bounding the Kashmír valley on the east. Lat. 33° 43′ N., long. 75° 34′ E. (Thornton). Elevation of crest above sea level, 12,000 feet.

Nabpur. — Trading village in the Kátwá (Cutwa) Subdivision of Bardwán District, Bengal.

Náchangáon.—Ancient town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 42′ N., and long. 78° 22′ E., 2 miles south of Pulgáon railway station, and 21 from Wardhá town. Pop. (1870), 3571, chiefly agriculturists. The *sarái* (native inn), with its strong stone walls and gateway, resembles a fort, and was once successfully held by the inhabitants against the Pindárís. It contains a well, a carved stone on which states that the building was constructed four centuries ago by Bádsháh Lár. Every Thursday a market takes place in the square in the centre of the town; and on the 4th of Aswin Vadhya (end of September) a yearly fair is held in the temple of Puránik. Náchangáon has a good village school, and is a police outpost.

Nachiarkovil (also called *Srivilliputúr*).—Town in the Srivilliputúr *táluk* of Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 30′ 25″ N., long. 77° 40′ E.; pop. (1871), 14,136; number of houses, 3859. There is a fine pagoda here.

Nádanghát.—Trading village in the Kálná (Culna) Subdivision of Bardwán District, Bengal.

Nádáun.—Town in Kángra District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *jágír* of the late Rájá Sir Jodhbir Sinh, who was recently succeeded by his son Amar Sinh. Pop. (1868), 1855. Lies in lat. 31° 46′ N., and long. 79° 19′ E., on the left bank of the Beas (Biás), 20 miles south-east of Kángra. Once a favourite residence of Rájá Sansar Chánd, who built himself a palace at Amtar, on the river bank, one mile from the town, where he held his court during the summer. Handsome temple and covered well, *jágírdár's* police station, post office, school-house. Manufacture of soap and of ornamental bamboo pipe-stems.

Nadiyá (*Nuddea*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 52′ 33″ and 24° 11′ N. lat., and between 88° 11′ and 89° 24′ 41″ E. long. Area, 3421 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,812,795 souls. Nadiyá District forms the northern portion of the Presidency Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Rájsháhí; on the east by

Pabná and Jessor; on the south by the Twenty-four Parganás, on the west by Bírbhúm, Bardwán, and Húglí; and on the north-west by Murshidábád. The boundary lines are formed principally by rivers—the Padma (at present the main stream of the Ganges), separating Nadiyá from Pabná and Rájsháhí; the Jalangí, marking the line of division with Murshidábád; and the Bhágirathi, forming the western boundary of the District, although, owing to changes in the course of the last-named river, two strips of land belonging to Nadiyá now lie on the farther bank of the river. The Kabadak forms the south-eastern boundary, separating Nadiyá from Jessor. The District takes its name from the town of NADIYA or Nabadwíp; but the administrative head-quarters and chief town is KRISHNAGAR, on the Jalangí.

Physical Aspects.—Nadiyá is emphatically a District of great rivers. Standing at the head of the Gangetic delta, its alluvial surface, though still liable to periodical inundation, has been raised by ancient deposits of silt sufficiently high to be permanent dry land. As opposed to the swamps of the Sundarbans farther seaward, its soil is agriculturally classed as 'high land,' bearing cold-weather crops as well as rice. The rivers have now ceased their busy work of landmaking, and are in their turn beginning to silt up. Along the entire north-eastern boundary flows the wide stream of the Padmá, which is now the main channel of the GANGES; and all the remaining rivers of the District are offshoots of the Great River. The BHAGIRATHI on the eastern border, and the JALANGI and the MATABHANGA meandering through the centre of the District, are the chief of these offshoots, and are called distinctively the 'Nadiyá Rivers.' But the whole surface of the country is interlaced with a network of minor streams, communicating with one another by side channels. The Jalangí flows past the civil station of Krishnagar, and falls into the Bhágirathi opposite the old town of Nadiyá. Its chief offshoot is the BHAIRAB. The Mátábhángá, after throwing off the PANGASI, the KUMAR, and the KABADAK, bifurcates near Krishnaganj, into the CHURNI and the ICHHAMATI, and thereafter loses its own name. All of these rivers are navigable in the rainy season for boats of the largest burthen; but during the rest of the year they dwindle down to shallow streams, with dangerous sandbanks and bars. In former times, 'the Nadiyá Rivers' afforded the regular means of communication between the upper valley of the Ganges and the seaboard; and the keeping open of their channels formed one of the most important duties of Government. The elaborate measures adapted for this object will be found fully described in the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (vol. ii. pp. 19-32). Tolls are levied at Jangipur, Nadiyá town, and Krishnaganj, to the amount of about £20,000 a year, and a considerable proportion of this revenue is expended on repairs, etc. by the engineering staff. But though much of the trade of the District still comes down

to Calcutta by this route during the height of the rainy season, the lines of the East Indian and Eastern Bengal Railways, and also the main stream of the Ganges and the Sundarbans route, now carry by far the larger portion of the traffic. In 1876-77, the number of boats passing the three toll stations was returned as follows:—Nadiyá, 40,059; Krishnaganj, 12,477; Jangipur, 22,435.

History.—The family of the Nadiyá Rájás is one of great antiquity and sanctity. They trace descent in a direct line from Bhattanáráyan, the chief of the five Bráhmans imported from Kanauj by Adisur, King of Bengal. As, moreover, the family has figured somewhat conspicuously in history, their family annals are more interesting than usual. The most celebrated of the line was Mahárájá Krishna Chandra, who came to the *gadí* in 1728, and is described as the Mæcenas of his time—a munificent patron of letters, whose delight it was to entertain and converse with distinguished *pandits*, and who lost no opportunity of bestowing gifts of money and land upon men of learning and piety. So famous was his bounty that there is a Bengalí proverb still current, that he who does not possess a gift from Krishna Chandra cannot be a genuine Bráhman. At the time when Siráj-ud-daulá was in arms against us, Krishna Chandra took the part of the English; and in recognition of his services, Lord Clive conferred on him the title of Rájendra Bahádur, and presented him with 12 guns used at Plassey, which are still to be seen in the palace. The successors of Krishna Chandra inherited, as a rule, his love of letters, and men of piety and learning have always been received with favour at the Nadiyá Court; so that the town and District have gradually acquired great fame as the home of philosophers and *pandits*. The town is also regarded as peculiarly sacred, being the birth-place of Chaitanya, the great Vaishnav reformer, in whose honour a festival attended by four or five thousand followers, and lasting twelve days, is held every January or February. But it is not only on account of the fame and sanctity of its ancient capital that the District of Nadiyá is interesting; it possesses historical attractions alike for natives and English. Here was the capital of Lakshman Sen, the last Hindu king of Bengal; and here was—for it no longer remains—the battle-field of Plassey, where, in 1757, Clive defeated the Muhammadan Nawáb. The waters of the Bhágirathi have swept away the actual scene of the battle, and only a solitary tree remains to mark the spot where Clive's famous Mango-Grove once stood.

In 1860, Nadiyá District was the scene of the indigo riots which occasioned so much excitement throughout Lower Bengal. Soon after the first European planters established themselves in the District, a feeling of jealousy arose among the large native landholders, who found their influence suffering in consequence of the presence of the new-comers. They accordingly endeavoured to raise in the minds

of the cultivators an ill-feeling against the planters, and against the strange crop. Constant quarrels followed, and the planters, failing to get redress from the courts, had recourse to fighting the native landholders with bands of club-men. They also began to purchase, or to obtain sub-tenures of the lands adjoining their factories, so that they might be as much as possible independent of unfriendly *zamíndárs.* The latter, however, took every occasion to create a feeling of dissatisfaction among the indigo cultivators, and not without success. Unfortunately, too, a number of circumstances combined to intensify the bitterness thus engendered. Crops had, for some years previous to 1860, been poor; prices were low; the *rayats* were in a state of chronic indebtedness; and owing to an increase which had taken place in the value of other agricultural produce, the cultivators saw that it would have paid them better to grow oil-seeds and cereals than indigo. Collisions became common; and such was the excited state of the peasantry, that a spark was all that was required to set the indigo districts in a blaze. The crisis was brought about by some ill-disposed persons starting a rumour that the Government had declared itself against indigo planting. The District was for a time at the mercy of the cultivators; and those *rayats* who had lands sown with indigo in terms of their contracts with the factories, were seized by the mob and beaten. The Bengal Government succeeded in quieting the disturbance, and a Commission was appointed to inquire into the relations between the planters and the cultivators. Indigo cultivation in Nadiyá received at this time a blow from which it has never altogether recovered.

Population.—Owing to numerous changes which have recently taken place in the area of the District, the results of early attempts made to enumerate the population of Nadiyá would, even if they could be considered fairly accurate, be of no value at the present day. The first trustworthy Census was taken in 1872; and according to this enumeration, the population consists of 1,812,795 persons, inhabiting 352,017 houses and 3691 villages, the average density of the population being 530 per square mile. The number of villages per square mile is 1·08; the number of houses per square mile, 103; and the number of persons per house, 5·2. Of the total population, 877,125, or 48·4 per cent., are males and 935,670 females. The total number of children under 12 years of age is given as 596,473, of whom 331,016 are boys and 265,457 girls. There are only 156 non-Asiatics in Nadiyá, of whom 152 are Europeans. Of aborigines the number is 789; and of semi-Hinduized aborigines, 179,213, including 57,375 Chamárs and Muchís, 42,062 Chandáls, and 35,576 Bágdís. Of trading castes, there are 16,004; of agricultural and pastoral castes, 252,196, including the Kaibarttas, of whom there are 114,857. Hindu high castes number 65,041, namely, 60,024 Bráhmans and 5017 Rájputs. The

Muhammadans in Nadiyá exceed the Hindus in number, there being 984,106 of the former (or 54·3 per cent. of the total population), and 821,032, or 45·3 per cent., of the latter. The Christian population in 1872 numbered 5977 (0·32 per cent. of the total population), of whom 5764 were native converts. An interesting sect has its home in this District, namely, the Kartábhajás. The founder of the sect was a labourer named Rám Smaran Pál, a Sadgop by birth, who lived in the village of Ghoshpára, about 3 miles from the present railway station of Kánchrápára. Here the members of the sect hold their gatherings; assembling, in October and November, to the number of forty or fifty thousand, to pay homage to their spiritual head, or *kartá*. An account of the tenets of this sect will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (vol. ii. pp. 53-55). Nadiyá contains a considerable urban population. There are in the District 61 towns, each inhabited by upwards of 2000 persons, and of these, seven, which are municipalities, have a population of more than 5000. These seven municipalities are KRISHNAGAR (population, 26,750), SANTIPUR (28,635), KUSHTIA (9245), RANAGHAT (8871), NABADWIP or NADIYA (8863), MIHRPUR (5562), and KUMARKHALI (5251). Krishnagar, which is the administrative headquarters and chief town of the District, is situated on the Jalangí river. A Government College was established here in 1846. The town is noted for the manufacture of excellent coloured clay figures. Nadiyá, the ancient capital of the District, was formerly situated on the east bank of the Bhágirathi, but, owing to changes of the river-course, it now lies on the west bank of the stream. It has always been celebrated for the sanctity and learning of its *pandits*. Reference will be made further on to the famous *tols* or indigenous Sanskrit schools of Nadiyá. The battle-field of PLASSEY was situated within this District, but the floods of the Bhágirathi have washed away the scene of that memorable engagement.

Agriculture.—The staple crop of this as of the other Districts of Bengal, is rice, of which there are four crops—namely, (1) the *áus* or autumn crop, reaped in August and September; (2) the *áman* or winter crop, reaped in November; (3) *boro* or spring rice, harvested in March or April; and (4) *jálí*, the late autumn crop, cut in October or November. Both the *áman* and the *boro* rice require transplantation. Among the other cereal and green crops are wheat, barley, oil-seeds, peas, gram, chillies, etc. The fibres grown in Nadiyá are hemp, flax, cotton, and jute. This last is not sown to any great extent, and the produce is inferior in quality to that of the eastern Districts of Bengal; the average out-turn of the fibre per acre is from 12 to 15 cwts., and the gross value is estimated at about £7, 10s. per acre. Sugar-cane, indigo, tobacco, turmeric, mulberry, and *pán* are among the other special crops. Indigo is the chief export staple of the District; there are two

crops, one sown in April or May and reaped in August or September, and the other sown in October and reaped in July. The finest dye is obtained from the spring sowings, which also cover the largest area. Though rice covers by far the larger portion of the cultivated land, second or cold-weather crops of pulses, oil-seeds and wheat, grown on *áus* land, are more common in Nadiyá than in any other District of Eastern Bengal. As a matter of fact, enough rice is not grown in the District to satisfy the local demand, which is met by importation from the south. In some parts, especially in the Subdivision of Chuádángá, the cultivation of chillies or long-pepper forms an important feature in the rural industry, as the peasant relies upon this special crop to pay the rent of his other fields. The out-turn of paddy per acre varies, according to the kind of land, from 4½ cwts. to 13 cwts., valued at from 12s. to £1, 16s. The extent of cultivable spare land in the District is very small. Irrigation is only practised in the event of a deficiency in the rainfall, and is effected by means of small water-courses, the cost being estimated at about 4s. 6d. an acre. Manure, consisting of cow-dung or oil-cake, is used for lands not adjacent to rivers, nor watered by them. The rent of rice land ranges from 3s. to 7s. 6d. an acre; the rent of other kinds of land varies in different parts of the District, and according to the crops produced. Rents of all kinds have risen greatly since the Permanent Settlement in 1793, being now in many parts of the District double what they then were, and everywhere 30 per cent. higher. Wages have doubled during the last twenty years; coolies and agricultural day-labourers at present earn from 4½d. to 6d. a day. The price of the best cleaned rice is 13s. 8d. a cwt., and of the common quality, 5s. a cwt. A large proportion of the cultivable area of Nadiyá is held on *utbandí* tenures,—that is to say, for a single season only. The extent of land remaining in the hands of superior landlords is said to be less than half that sublet to intermediate holders.

Natural Calamities.—Blights occur every year in Nadiyá, attacking particular crops, but not on any extensive scale. Floods are common, and, after what has been said above of the rivers of the District, it will be readily understood that they cause much damage. The most severe flood in recent times occurred in 1871, when the Bhágirathi rose and fell three times, and the other rivers twice. Fortunately the rising of the waters was so slow that there was very little loss of human life; but the number of cattle which died of starvation or disease was estimated at 200,000 head, and from a half to two-thirds of the rice crop was lost. Nadiyá suffered severely in the great famine of 1866. There was a serious drought in the District in 1865; and at the end of October of that year the Collector reported that prospects were very gloomy, the price of *áus* rice having already risen from 4s. 1d. a cwt.

in the previous year to 8s. The harvesting of the *áman* or winter crop brought a slight temporary relief; but in the spring of 1866 great distress again prevailed, and from April to October of that year Government and private relief were necessary. During that period, twenty-four principal centres of relief were at one time or another in operation, in addition to sixteen minor depôts at which food was distributed. The aggregate number of persons who received gratuitous relief was 601,123, and the aggregate number employed on relief-works was 337,059. The total cost of relief during the famine, including half the amount spent on relief-works, was £5948, of which Government paid £4850.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—The manufacture of indigo dye under European supervision, to which reference has already been made, still remains the chief industry of the District. Cotton-weaving is everywhere on the decline, especially at the town of Sántipur, where in the beginning of this century the commercial agent of the Company used to purchase muslin to the annual value of £150,000. Sántipur muslin is still exported to a small extent. Sugar-refining by European methods has proved unsuccessful; but several refineries in native hands exist at Sántipur, to which the raw material is brought from the neighbouring District of Jessor. Other special industries are the making of brass-ware, particularly at Nadiyá town and Mihrpur; and the moulding of clay figures at Krishnagar.

The District of Nadiyá is very favourably situated for trade. On the north and west, it is bounded by large rivers; while the numerous streams which intersect it all become navigable for a considerable portion of the year. The Eastern Bengal Railway runs north through the District for a distance of nearly 100 miles; and the fair-weather roads are also usually good. According to the registration returns for 1876-77, the aggregate value of the trade of Nadiyá amounts to more than £4,000,000; but a large proportion of this represents traffic in transit, included twice over as imports and exports. About half the total is set down to the single mart of KUSHTIA, where the railway first touches the main stream of the Ganges. In 1876-77, Kushtiá received from the surrounding country silk valued at £388,000, indigo £71,000, timber £60,000, rice £60,000, oil-seeds £38,000, sugar £33,000, turmeric £30,000, jute £29,000; while it took from Calcutta, for distribution, piece-goods valued at £344,000, and salt £12,000. Other important marts are Hánskhálí, Sántipur, Chogdah (which has given its name to a special kind of jute in the Calcutta market), Kumárkhálí, Chuádángá, Krishnaganj, Bagulá and Alamdángá. The chief exports of local produce are jute, linseed, wheat, pulses and gram, rice, long-pepper or chillies, sugar and tobacco.

The only institutions in the District worthy of note are the *tols*, or

indigenous Sanskrit schools. In these *tols*, *smriti* (Hindu social and religious law) and *nyáya* (logic) are taught by learned *pandits* to eager pupils, attracted, often from considerable distances, by the ancient fame of these institutions. A valuable report on the Nadiyá *tols* by Professor E. B. Cowell (Calcutta, 1867) contains a full account of the schools, the manner of life of the pupils, and the works studied. Professor Cowell describes the *tol* as consisting generally of 'a mere collection of mud hovels round a quadrangle, in which the students live in the most primitive manner possible. . . . Each student has his own hut with his brass water-pot and mat, and few have any other furniture.' A student generally remains at the *tol* for eight or ten years. No fees are charged, and the *pandits* depend for their livelihood on the presents which their fame as teachers ensures them at religious ceremonies. Most of the *tols* are in Nadiyá town, but there are also a few in the surrounding villages. No registers of attendance are kept, but it is said that the number of *tols* as well as of pupils is gradually decreasing; in 1873, the number of these schools in Nadiyá and the neighbourhood was seventeen.

Administration.—In consequence of the important changes of jurisdiction which have taken place in Nadiyá, it is impossible to present a trustworthy comparison of the revenue and expenditure at different periods. The area of the District is at present smaller by a third than it was in 1790. The land tax in the latter year was £135,993; in 1850, it was £117,449; and in 1870, it had fallen to £101,755. The total net revenue in 1809-10, the first year for which a balance-sheet is available, was £121,119; in 1850-51, it had risen to £139,755, and in 1870-71, to £178,379. The expenditure has increased still more rapidly. In 1809, the net expenditure on civil administration was £17,917; in 1850, it had risen (exclusive of police expenditure) to £29,762; in 1870, it had further increased to £58,410, also excluding police. It will be seen, therefore, that while the Government net revenue is at present one-third more than it was in 1809, the net expenditure has increased more than threefold in the same period. Subdivision of property has gone on rapidly under British rule. In 1790, the number of estates in the District was 261, held by 205 proprietors, paying a total land tax of £135,993, the average payment from each estate being £521, and from each proprietor, £663. In 1871-72, the total number of estates was 2767, the average payment from each estate being £36, 15s. Protection to person and property has steadily increased. In 1793, there was only 1 civil court and 1 covenanted English officer in Nadiyá; in 1800, there were 39 courts and 2 officers; and in 1869, the number of magisterial courts was 12, and of revenue and civil courts, 27. For police purposes, the District is divided into 31 police circles (*thánás*) and 2

outposts. The police force consisted in 1871 of (1) the regular police of 595 men of all ranks, (2) a village watch of 4529 men, and (3) a municipal police of 278 men; total, 5402 officers and men, or 1 man to every 335 of the population. The aggregate cost of this force was £30,053, equal to a charge of $3\frac{7}{8}$d. per head of the population. There are 6 jails in the District; the average daily jail population in 1870 was 440, or 1 criminal always in jail to every 4120 of the population. The Nadiyá jails are very healthy; only 9 deaths occurred in them during 1871. The average annual cost of maintenance per prisoner, including all charges, was £5, 15s. 6d. Education has made rapid progress of late years. In 1856-57, there were only 19 Government and aided schools in the District, attended by 1865 pupils. In 1871-72, the number of schools was 253, with 9120 pupils. By 1874-75, the number of schools had further risen to 897, and the number of pupils to 28,489, showing 1 school to every 3·81 square miles, and 15 pupils to every thousand of the population. The Government College at Krishnagar was attended in 1874-75 by a daily average of 39 pupils; the total expenditure was £1864, of which £1600 was contributed by Government; the average cost of each pupil was £47, 16s. The number of candidates from this college who presented themselves for the First Arts examination of the Calcutta University was 21, of whom only 6 passed.

For administrative purposes, Nadiyá is divided into 6 Subdivisions, viz.—(1) the *sadr* or headquarters Subdivision; (2) Mihrpur; (3) Kushtiá; (4) Chuádángá; (5) Bangáon; and (6) Ránághát. These are, in turn, subdivided into 88 fiscal divisions (*parganás*). The 7 municipalities already named had in 1871 a gross municipal income of £5700, the expenditure being £5447; average rate of municipal taxation, 1s. $2\frac{1}{2}$d. per head of population.

Medical Aspects.—The average temperature in Nadiyá is 77° F., and the average annual rainfall about 65 inches. Being a low-lying plain dotted over with many swamps, the District suffers much from endemic fever. A very severe outbreak of epidemic fever occurred in 1864-66. Krishnagar and the neighbouring villages suffered very severely, 5000 people being attacked by the fever, of whom 2000 died. Besides remittent and intermittent fevers, small-pox, diarrhœa, dysentery, and cholera are prevalent in Nadiyá. Cattle suffer from ulceration of the hoof, which, though sometimes epidemic, is not generally fatal, and from throat disease of a serious type. There are 8 charitable dispensaries in the District.

Nadiyá.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Nadiyá District, Bengal. Area (inclusive of Krishnagar, the headquarters of the District), 698 square miles, with 632 townships and 68,789 houses. Pop. (1872), 334,076, of whom 188,292 were Hindus, 143,575 Muhammadans, 1963

Christians, and 246 of other religions. Number of persons per square mile, 479; average number of inmates per house, 4·9; proportion of males in total population, 48·3. In 1870-71, this Subdivision contained 9 revenue and magisterial courts, with 6 police circles, a regular police force of 342 men, and a village watch numbering 870; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £17,428.

Nadiyá (or *Nabadwíp*).—Ancient capital of Nadiyá District, Bengal, and the residence of Lakshman Sen, the last independent Hindu king of Bengal. Situated in lat. 23° 24′ 55″ N., and long. 88° 25′ 3″ E., on the west bank of the Bhágirathi. Area, 3½ square miles; pop. (1872), 8863, namely, 8520 Hindus, 335 Muhammadans, and 8 Christians. Municipal income (1876-77), £328; incidence of taxation, 8¾d. per head of population within municipal limits.

According to local legend, the town was founded in 1063 by Lakshman Sen, son of Ballál Sen, King of Bengal. He is said to have been induced to change the site of his capital from Gaur by the superior sanctity of the Bhágirathi at this spot; but no doubt he was really pushed onwards by the growing power of the Muhammadans, who took Nadiyá and finally overthrew the native Hindu dynasty under Muhammad Bakhtiár Khiljí in 1203. Nadiyá has long been famous for its sanctity and learning. Here, in the end of the 15th century, was born the great reformer Chaitanya, in whose honour a festival, attended by some 4000 or 5000 Vaishnavs, is held in the month of Mágh (January or February) every year. The famous *tols* or Sanskrit schools have been referred to in the article on NADIYA DISTRICT (*vide supra*). In the historical section of the same article will be found some account of the Rájás of Nadiyá, whose descendant now resides at Krishnagar.

Nadol.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána. It was the seat of an important branch of the Chauhán clan of Ajmere from a very early period, and with the surrounding district, of which it was the capital, was for centuries an object of contention between the States of Maiwár and Márwár. Ráo Lakha of Nadol was one of the Rájput princes who unsuccessfully opposed Mahmúd of Ghazni in his famous expedition to Somnáth. Nadol is now known chiefly for its architectural remains. Of these, Tod (*Annals of Rájásthán*, vol. i. p. 598; second edition, Madras, 1873) says:—

'It is impossible to do full justice to the architectural remains, which are well worthy of the pencil. Here everything shows that the Jain faith was once predominant, and that their arts, like their religion, were of a character quite distinct from those of Siva. The temple of Mahávíra, the last of their twenty-four apostles, is a very fine piece of architecture. Its vaulted roof is a perfect model of the most ancient style of dome in the East, probably invented anterior to the Roman. The principle is

no doubt the same as the first substitute of the arch, and is that which marked the genius of Cæsar in his bridge over the Rhone, and which appears over every mountain torrent of the ancient Helvetii, from whom he may have borrowed it. The principle is that of a horizontal instead of a radiating pressure. At Nadol, the stones are placed by a gradual projection one over the other, the apex being closed by a circular key-stone. The angles of all these projections being rounded off, the spectator looking up can only describe the vault as a series of gradually diminishing amulets or rings converging to the apex. The effect is very pleasing, though it furnishes a strong argument that the Hindus first became acquainted with the perfect arch through their conquerors. The *torun* in front of the altar of Mahávíra is exquisitely sculptured, as well as several statues of marble, discovered about one hundred and fifty years ago in the bed of the river, when it changed its course. It is not unlikely that they were buried during Mahmúd's invasion. But the most singular structure of Nadol is a reservoir, called the *channa baoli*, from the cost of it being paid by the returns of a single grain of pulse (*channa*). The excavation is immense; the descent is by a flight of grey granite steps, and the sides are built up from the same materials by piling blocks upon blocks of enormous magnitude, without the least cement.'

Nágá Hills.—A British District forming the south-easterly corner of the Province of Assam. It lies between 25° 13′ and 26° 32′ N. lat., and between 93° and 94° 13′ E. long., being a mountainous border land between the settled District of Nowgong in the Brahmaputra valley and the semi-independent State of Manipur. The approximate area is returned by the Surveyor-General at 3966 square miles, but was estimated at 4900 square miles in the Census Report of 1872. The Parliamentary Abstract for 1878 gives the present area as 5300 square miles. The population has been roughly ascertained to be about 69,000 souls. The administrative headquarters are at the village of SAMAGUTING.

Physical Aspects. — The District forms a wild expanse of forest, mountain, and stream, which has up to the present date been most imperfectly explored. The valleys as well as the hills are covered with dense jungle, and dotted with small lakes of deep water and shallow marshes, which all contribute to engender a very virulent type of malarious fever. It is estimated that virgin forest covers an area of about 2800 square miles. A considerable tract, called the Námbar Forest, has recently been brought under the conservancy rules of the Forest Department; but the greater portion is still a pathless waste, the secure home of large game. The jungle products collected by the wild tribes comprise bees-wax, a variety of cinnamon, several kinds of dyes, and various fibres which are utilized in weaving. The mineral

wealth has not yet been fully ascertained. Coal is known to exist in several localities on the Rengmá Hills, and limestone is to be obtained along the banks of the Námbar and Jamuná rivers. Chalk and slate have also been found. It is rumoured that silver exists in the hills; but the Nágás themselves are indifferent to the value of any of the precious metals, or of jewels. Hot springs have been met with in many places. The wild animals include the elephant, rhinoceros, buffalo, and wild ox or *gáyal*, tiger, leopard, and many kinds of deer. Large fish of good flavour are abundant in the hill streams.

The chief rivers are the DAYANG, DHANESWARI, and JAMUNA, which all become navigable during the rainy season for small boats. Each of these has many hill streams for tributaries. The surface of the country has not sufficient inclination to discharge the entire local rainfall, which stagnates in a chain of marshes at the close of the rainy season. The principal hills are the RENGMA and BAREL ranges. The Rengmá range, situated in the west of the District on the right bank of the Dhaneswarí river, attains an elevation of from 2000 to 3000 feet. It is covered with forest and underwood, and the slope is very steep. The Bárel Mountains run up from the frontier of Cáchár, crossing the District in a north-easterly direction. Their greatest height is about 6000 feet above sea level. On the boundary of the District they are saddle-backed in shape, often bristling into sharp ridges, with steep and almost inaccessible slopes. In the interior, they roll out into table-shaped spurs with grassy sides. Through this range several passes lead into the State of Manipur, along which hill ponies can be led; and it is said that no insuperable obstacles exist to the construction of a good road.

History.—The Nágá Hills were formed into a separate District under a Deputy Commissioner in 1867. Even at the present day this tract has not been completely surveyed, and it constitutes one of the least orderly portions of the whole British empire. It is inhabited almost entirely by the aboriginal tribe known as Nágás, who will be described more particularly in a subsequent paragraph. It is said that they maintained peaceable relations with the native Aham kings of Assam; but soon after our occupation of the Province, they commenced a series of depredations on the Districts of Nowgong and Síbságar towards the north, and Cáchár on the south-west. Between the years 1832 and 1851, no fewer than ten armed expeditions were despatched to chastise them in their native hills. Apart from their natural inaccessibilty and the wide range of country over which they wander, the Nágás were protected by reason of a diplomatic difficulty. Their hills border the territory of the Rájá of Manipur; and it was considered unadvisable to raise any questions with that State, whose first treaty with the British dates back as early as 1762. Our policy

with regard to the Nágás has uniformly been directed to the aim of establishing political control rather than direct government. In 1867, a Deputy Commissioner was first stationed at Sámaguting, and a portion of the Nágá Hills was constituted for certain purposes into an executive District. It was thought that in this manner a central position would be secured, from which the peaceful influences might gradually be extended over the Nágás, who have always manifested predatory instincts and rugged independence. The systematic exploration of the country was also held out as an object of scarcely secondary importance. The eastern limits of the District were fixed at the Dáyang river; but it was not intended that the country on the farther bank, also inhabited by Nágá tribes, should be regarded as beyond the frontier of British India. Since that date, surveying parties have been constantly engaged in ascertaining the geographical outlines of this wide stretch of country, which possesses both political and physical interest, as containing the watershed which separates the valley of Assam from the mountain glens of Independent Burma. The old Nágá raids which annually depopulated the plains have ceased; but outbreaks still occur at rare intervals. With the exception of 7 principal villages, which pay a house tax at the rate of 4s. a year, no revenue is exacted from the Nágá tribes; though the Míkírs and other less uncivilised communities contribute something towards the cost of Government. An armed and well-paid police force is maintained at Sámaguting, and the exploring operations are under the protection of military escorts.

But despite all precautions, the Nágás have illustrated their traditional character as successful jungle fighters in more than one determined attack upon our survey parties. In 1873, a party under Captain Samuells and Lieutenant Holcombe explored the eastern hills, which extend beyond the Dáyang river towards the Patkái range. The Nágás were found to be somewhat suspicious and sulky, but it was hoped that after more intimate intercourse they would become convinced of our pacific intentions. No show of actual hostility was manifested; but in the following cold season, including the beginning of 1875, the scene changed. The Nágás turned out in force, the party was surrounded, and Lieutenant Holcombe and his followers were treacherously massacred. In the western hills, bordering on Manipur, similar symptoms of ill-will were manifested. The survey party under Captain Butler, who had done more than any other single man to open out this country, was attacked on the night of the 4th January 1875, by the people of Wokhá, under which village his camp had been formed. The attack was made in great force, but was promptly met by a counter attack, and the village was fired and occupied. The ascertained loss of the Nágás was 18 killed, and all their property was captured; on our side 4 men were slightly wounded. Again, on the 10th January, Captain

Butler was attacked in open day by from 400 to 500 Nágás, who were easily driven off with heavy loss. Later in the same year, however, Captain Butler was cut off and killed. In 1879-80, the Nágás again gave trouble. They killed Mr. Damant, the Deputy Commissioner, who had gone to a village to establish order. After being punished, they made a foray upon the Cáchár side, murdering a tea-planter and committing other ravages. Arrangements are now (1880) in progress for the more perfect establishment and maintenance of order among the Nágá tribes.

Population, etc.—The regular Census of 1872 was not extended to any portion of this District. An estimate in 1855 gave the total population of all the Nágá tribes at about 100,000. At the time of the Survey in 1871-72, an enumeration of the inhabitants dwelling under British authority, conducted by Captain Butler, ascertained a total of 68,918; but no details are available, and the enumeration is admitted to be very inaccurate and incomplete. This figure would give an average of 14 persons per square mile, calculated upon the area of 4900 square miles given in the Census Report. In 1870, the Deputy Commissioner roughly estimated the number of villages to be 241, thus distributed among the different tribes inhabiting them:—Assamese, 8; Aitaniyá, 3; Cáchárí, 23; Míkír, 90; Kukí, 9; Angámí, Kachá, and Rengmá Nágás, 108. At the same time, the strength of each of these sections of the population was estimated as follows:—Assamese, 705; Aitaniyás, 355; Cácháris, 3505; Míkírs, 8820; Kukís, 2524; Nágás, 66,535: total, 82,444. The figures for the first four named races were obtained by referring to the record of houses kept for revenue purposes, and by assuming an average of 5 inmates per house for the Assamese, Aitaniyás, and Cácháris, and of 10 per house in the case of the Míkírs. This last tribe are remarkable for the extent to which they herd together; it is no uncommon circumstance to find three or even four families, in no way related to each other, residing under the same roof. For the Kukís, the figures were derived from an actual enumeration taken during the cold season of 1869-70. The proportion of Nágás per house was also assumed to be 5; and the number of houses was arrived at partly by counting the number in 70 villages, and partly from vague statements furnished by the Nágás themselves.

The Nágás.—Under the generic name of Nágá is included a large number of virtually independent tribes, who are in sole occupation of the hill country from the northern boundary of Cáchár to the banks of the Dihing river in the extreme east of the Province of Assam. The explanation of the term generally accepted is that which derives it from the Bengalí *nankta*, meaning 'naked;' but some authorities are inclined to connect it with *nága*, the Sanskrit for 'snake,' an origin which suggests an association with the well-known aboriginal traditions

of Central India. The various tribes of Nágás are all apparently sprung from a common stock of the Indo-Chinese family of nations, and all live much in the same primitive state; yet they now speak different dialects, which are so distinct from each other that villages, lying scarcely a day's journey apart, can only communicate through an interpreter using a foreign tongue. The British District is inhabited by three tribes known as the Angámí, Rengmá, and Kachá Nágás. The Rengmá are a small and inoffensive clan, occupying the hill range of the same name. At the present day, they can scarcely be distinguished from the Míkírs among whom they live, and they carry on a river traffic by means of the Jamuná river with Bengalí traders. The following description of the Nágás is primarily applicable to the Angámí and Kachá clans, who live respectively in the south-east and south-west of the District, and also to those who dwell beyond British control. They are an athletic and by no means bad-looking race, with brown complexion, flat noses, and high cheek-bones. They are brave and warlike, but also treacherous and vindictive. Their dress consists of a dark blue or black kilt, ornamented with rows of cowrie shells, and a thick cloth of home manufacture thrown over the shoulders. As ear-ornaments, they wear tusks of the wild boar; but the most coveted decoration is a neck-collar made of goat's hair dyed red, and fringed with the long scalps of slain enemies. Above the elbow are worn armlets either of ivory or plaited cane, prettily worked in red or yellow. Between the calf and the knee are bound pieces of finely cut cane dyed black, the calves being encased in leggings of cane similar to the armlets. The hair is generally cut square in front, and tied into a knot behind, with a plume of eagle or toucan feathers. The national weapons are a spear, a shield, and a *dáo* or bill-hook. This last also serves as the sole implement of agriculture, and for all domestic purposes. The shaft of the spear is twined with plaited cane and coloured hair. The shield is 5 feet long by 18 inches broad, the framework consisting of split bamboos, covered in front with a bear or tiger skin, and protected behind by a board. When proceeding on a foray, they invariably carry a large stock of sharp-pointed bamboos a few inches in length, intended to be stuck in the ground to retard the pursuit of an enemy. Of recent years, many have succeeded in obtaining guns or muskets; and the possession of fire-arms is the supreme desire of every Nágá. Their villages are invariably built on the summits of the hills, and are strongly fortified with stone walls, stockades, and ditches. The approaches, also, are formed by a species of covered way, so constructed as to admit but one person at a time, and guarded by massive doors, and sentries. The number of houses in a village varies from 20 to 1000. They are built with long gable roofs, and eaves almost touching the ground. In dimensions, they are sometimes 50 feet long by 30 feet

broad, and are generally divided into only two rooms. The religious ideas of the Nágás are of a very vague order. In common with the aborigines of Central India, they are extremely superstitious in the matter of omens; and all their ceremonies and sacrifices are directed, not towards a benevolent supreme power, but to appease the wrath of numerous malignant spirits. Their mode of taking an oath is to place a spear-head or the muzzle of a gun between their teeth, and to imprecate on themselves destruction by that weapon if they are not speaking the truth. They inter their dead in a special burying-ground, and over the grave of a chief erect a stone tomb 3 or 4 feet high. They cannot be said to possess any organized form of polity. Each community has certain chiefs called *penniás*; but the authority of these chiefs is little more than nominal, and the office is not hereditary. Their one maxim of jurisprudence is that blood once shed can never be expiated, except by the death of the murderer or one of his nearest relatives. Hence blood feuds last from generation to generation. A noticeable feature in these internal quarrels is that the whole of one village is seldom at war with the whole of another village; but clan is at feud with clan, and it may thus happen that a single village contains two hostile clans within its walls, with a neutral clan living between on good terms with both. Their system of cultivation is that known as *júm*, which requires that fresh patches of jungle should be cleared by fire every three years. But in those ranges where the hills have a gentle slope, terraces are cut from the base to the summit; and the same land is continuously cultivated, being irrigated by artificial channels along which water is often conducted from considerable distances.

The Kukís are comparatively recent immigrants into the District from the mountains bordering on Tipperah and Chittagong. They form what is known as the Langtung colony, and live peaceably with their neighbours. They are the only hill tribe who submit to the rule of a hereditary chief called *hausá*, whose will is law. In their practice of *júm* cultivation, they differ from their cognates in taking only a single crop from a clearing in the jungle before it is abandoned. A few Kukí communities have arrived in the District since its formation, who state that they left Manipur owing to the oppression of the Rájá.

The Míkírs are an industrious race, who labour under the imputation of cowardice because they are less warlike and vindictive than their neighbours. They inhabit the lower hills, usually within a day's journey from the plains; and since our annexation of Assam, they have been recognised from the first as British subjects, and rendered liable to pay a house tax. In the neighbouring District of Nowgong, they number 34,583 persons, dwelling in the border tract specially known as the Míkír Hills. They live, not in organized communities, but in solitary huts or small hamlets, as many as thirty individuals sometimes occupy-

ing the same house. They carry on a brisk traffic with Bengalí traders, bartering their cotton, *eriá* silk and various jungle products for salt and piece-goods. As is also the case with the Cáchárís, they have recently fallen under the influence of Hinduism; and *gosáins* or religious instructors of the Vishnuvite sect are now very busy among them.

Next to the administrative headquarters of SAMAGUTING, which is itself a mere village, the following five places are estimated each to contain over 2000 inhabitants:—Nosang, Kanhimá, Viswemá, Nerhámá, and Sapromá. Dimápur, on the Dhaneswari river, about 15 miles distant from the civil station, which has recently been created a police outpost, has become the home of a few Márwárí and Muhammadan traders. Up to 1876, five villages occupied by Angámí Nágás, and one village of Kachá Nágás, had been subjected to the payment of a house tax. This token of submission was accepted voluntarily in every case; and it is said that several other influential villages are inclined to obtain the protection of British authority on the same terms. For fiscal purposes, only the western portion of the District has as yet been divided off into convenient blocks of villages.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop grown throughout the hills is rice, which yields two harvests. The *kezí* crop, corresponding to the *áus* of the plains, is sown broadcast about April, and reaped in July. It can be cultivated on any description of forest land, and yields a coarse grain, which is consumed locally. The *thedí* or *chedí* crop corresponds to the *sálí* of Assam and the *áman* of Bengal. It requires good soil and careful irrigation. It is sown about June, transplanted in the following month, and harvested in November. Of recent years, a considerable extension of rice cultivation has taken place, especially in the neighbourhood of Sámaguting; but at least three-fourths of the District area is still uncultivated waste. The other food crops comprise Indian corn, two small species of grain called *suthe* and *kesithe*, and various vegetables. Potatoes were introduced by the Deputy Commissioner in 1869. Cotton cultivation is restricted to the lower ranges lying north of the Bárel and Rengmá Hills, which are chiefly occupied by Rengmá Nágás and Míkírs. The tea plant is indigenous to the country, but the general state of insecurity, combined with other causes, has hitherto kept European capital at a distance. The only agricultural implements used are the *dáo* or hill-knife and a rude *kodálí* or hoe. No animals are required for the primitive methods of tillage; but oxen of several breeds, pigs, goats, and even dogs, are bred for food or barter. Irrigation is extensively practised, both from natural water-courses and artificial channels. In only two villages is the Government revenue raised by means of a rent assessed upon the cultivated land; and in these cases the rates are as follows:—For *bastú* or homestead land, on which vegetables, etc. are raised, 1s. 8d. per acre; *rupit* or lowland, suited for

the valuable crop of *thedí* rice, 2s. 1d. per acre; *faringháti* or high land, suited for *kezí* rice and a second crop of mustard seed or pulses, 1s. 8d. per acre. The natural calamities of flood and drought are practically unknown in the District; but the rice crops occasionally suffer from the ravages of insects, rats, and mice.

There are no regular rates of wages or of prices in the District. Prior to the formation of Sámaguting into a civil station, the Nágás were entirely ignorant of the value of money, and all trade was conducted by barter. Even at the present day, copper coins are looked upon with suspicion in the remote villages. The Nágás had no native standards of weight or measurement, but the *maund* and *ser* of the plains have now been generally introduced. In 1871, ordinary day-labourers could not be obtained for less than 6d. or 9d. a day; skilled artisans, who are imported from Assam or Bengal, demand £1, 10s. a month. In March of the same year, best cleaned rice sold in the Sámaguting *bázár* for £1 per cwt., common rice for 9s. 4d. per cwt., and common unhusked paddy for 4s. per cwt. The prices, however, vary greatly according to the season and the state of the market.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufacturing industries of the Nágá Hills are solely confined to the production of the few rude articles required for domestic use. The most important is the weaving of coarse thick cloth of various patterns, the prevailing colours being dark blue, with red and yellow stripes, and brown, with black stripes. The material is either cotton, the fibre of a plant of the nettle species, or the bark of a certain creeper. The weaving is done by the women, on whom also is laid a full share of the burden of agricultural operations, as well as all in-door work. The only ironwork consists of the forging of *dáos*, *kodális*, and spear-heads.

Trade is generally conducted by means of barter, and has increased very much both in amount and in complexity of recent years. There are no permanent markets, and the profits are entirely in the hands of Márwárí and Muhammadan traders. During the rains, water communication is available by means of the principal rivers. A tolerable road, 67 miles in length, maintained at an annual cost of £250, extends from the station of Sámaguting to the river mart of Golághát, in the District of Síbságar; and there are several passes across the southern hills into Cáchár and Manipur, over which ponies can be led. The local products available for export comprise rice, cotton, cloth woven from the nettle fibre, ivory, bees-wax, and various dyes obtained from the jungle. In exchange, salt and iron are imported; but the one great desire of every Nágá, to satisfy which he will run any risk and pay any price, is a gun and ammunition.

Administration.—The District has been formed so recently, and still remains in such a backward state of civilisation, that the revenue bears

a very small proportion to the expenditure. In 1869-70, the receipts from all sources amounted to only £497, which total, however, shows an increase of more than eleven-fold on the year but one previous; the house tax contributed £430, and the land tax proper, £55. The expenditure on civil administration in the same year was £6220. There is one European officer stationed in the District, and five judicial courts have been opened. For police purposes, the District comprises the *thánά* or police circle of Sámaguting, with one outpost at the foot of the Sámaguting Hill, and a second at Dimápur on the Dhaneswari river. In 1875, the regular police force consisted of 164 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £3494, showing 1 policeman to every 420 of the population, and an average cost of 1s. per head of the population. The force is organized on a semi-military basis, and each constable receives an average rate of pay of £11, 12s. per annum. A charitable dispensary is maintained by Government at Sámaguting, at which a total of 762 patients were treated in 1875.

Nagal.—Village in Dehrá Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 23′ N., long. 78° 10′ E. Situated on the Garhwál boundary, close to a small river, which is utilized for numerous mills.

Nágalapúr.—Low hill range in Chengalpat District, Madras, lying between 13° 24′ and 13° 27′ 40″ N. lat., and between 79° 49′ and 79° 51′ 50″ E. long.; connected with the Sattiáwad Hills on the north, and the Nágari group on the west. Average height, about 1800 feet.

Naga-mangala.—*Táluk* in Hassan District, Mysore. Area, 313 square miles, of which 106 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 74,762, of whom 73,340 are Hindus, 1140 Muhammadans, 265 Jains, and 17 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £8566, or 2s. 7d. per cultivated acre. Sheep-breeding is very extensively carried on. Saltpetre is obtained from *chaulu bhúmi*, or saline earth, to the amount of 10,800 lbs. a year. Another industry is the manufacture of brass utensils by the Jains at BELUR.

Naga-mangala.—Municipal village in Hassan District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 49′ 10″ N., and long. 76° 47′ 40″ E., 61 miles by road south-east of Hassan, and 28 miles north of Seringapatam. Head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 2494; municipal revenue (1874-75), £18; rate of taxation, 1¾d. per head. An ancient town, containing the remains of several temples and royal buildings. Formerly the residence of a line of *paligárs*. The inner fort is said to have been erected in 1270; the outer fortifications are assigned to 1578. In 1630, it was captured by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. The whole town was sacked and reduced to ruins by the Marhattás during the war with Tipú Sultán in 1792.

Nágapatnam.—Town in Tanjore, Madras.—*See* NEGAPATAM.

Nagar (or *Rájnagar*).—Town and ancient capital of Bírbhúm

District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 56′ 50″ N.; long. 87° 21′ 45″ E. Formerly of considerable importance as the metropolis of the Hindu princes of Bírbhúm, prior to the conquest of Bengal by the Muhammadans in 1203 A.D. In 1244, it was plundered by the Uriyás. The site of Nagar is now covered with crumbling houses, mouldering mosques, and weed-choked tanks; the ancestral palace of its Rájás has almost fallen into ruins. North of the town, and buried in dense jungle, are the remains of an ancient mud fort said to have been built in the last century as a defence against the Marhattás. The famous Nagar wall or entrenchment, extending in an irregular and broken line around the town for a distance of 32 miles, is now undergoing a rapid process of decay. The *ghâts* or gateways have long ceased to be capable of defence, and many parts of the wall have been washed almost level with the ground by the annual rains.

Nagar (*Nagore*, the ancient 'Thellyr').—Seaport town in Negapatam *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 49′ 26″ N., and long. 79° 53′ 24″ E., 3 miles north of, and officially included within, the NEGAPATAM municipality. The harbour is conveniently situated at the mouth of the river Vettár, and a considerable trade is carried on (in native bottoms) in betel-nuts, spices, timber, and ponies, with the Straits and Burma; the value of this trade is about £35,000 annually. Nagar has a celebrated mosque with a minaret 90 feet high, and is resorted to during its annual festival by Muhammadan pilgrims from all parts of India.

The town, with a small territory surrounding it, was sold by the Rájá of Tanjore to the Dutch at Negapatam in 1771, but was soon afterwards wrested from them by the Nawáb of the Karnatic with the aid of the English. It was afterwards restored to the Rájá, who made a grant of it to the English in 1776. In the campaign of 1780-81, food supplies were obtained hence for the British troops. Haidar ceded the place to the Dutch, from whom it passed to the English in 1781.—(For municipal and population details, see NEGAPATAM.)

Nágar.—River of Northern Bengal. Approaching Dinájpur District from Purniah at its extreme northernmost point, it flows southward for about 90 miles, marking the boundary between Dinájpur and Purniah, till it falls into the MAHANANDA (lat. 25° 29′ 45″ N., long. 88° 7′ E.), at the point where the latter river first touches on Dinájpur. Navigable by large cargo-boats during the rainy season. Chief tributaries—Pátki and Kulik. The bed of the Nágar is rocky in the north, but becomes sandy towards its southern section; the banks are sloping and for the most part uncultivated.

Nágar.—Small river of Northern Bengal; rises in the north of Bogra District, enters Rájsháhí, and after a course of about 20 miles in the latter District, falls into the Gur, which is the name given to the united streams of the Atrái and Jamuná.

Nagar.—Town in Shimoga District, Mysore.—*See* BEDNUR.

Nagar.—Town in Bannu District, Punjab, lying at the foot of the Salt Range. Lat. 33° 10′ N., long. 71° 5′ E. Good *bázár.* Decayed walls.

Nagar.—Town in the Kullu Subdivision of Kángra District, Punjab. Ancient capital of the Kullu Rájás, and now the residence of the Assistant Commissioner. Situated on the left bank of the Beas (Biás), 12 miles north of Sultánpur. The ancient palace of the Rájás crowns an eminence looking down upon the river from a height of about a thousand feet. It commands a magnificent view, and itself forms a striking feature from the town.

Nágar.—Hill range, covered with forest, between Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Mandla Districts, Central Provinces. The valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) lies below.

Nagarbasti.—Town in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Little Gandak, in lat. 25° 52′ 15″ N., and long. 85° 51′ 30″ E., 20 miles south of the town of Darbhangah. Roads to Málínagar, to Biláspur for Darbhangah, and to Ruserá *via* Jitwárpur indigo factory on the opposite bank of the river. *Tháná*, school, and *bázár*; bi-weekly market.

Nagardhán.—Decayed town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. —*See* NANDARTHAN.

Nágari.—Hill range in North Arcot District, Madras; forming the extreme south-easterly spur of the Eastern Gháts, and consisting of 'altered and hardened sandstone some hundreds of feet thick, upheaved towards the east in perpendicular precipices by granite or gneiss rocks, which are intersected by dikes of serpentine trap.'—(Cox.)

Nágari Nose.—Principal peak of the NAGARI HILLS, North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 13° 22′ 53″ N., long. 79° 39′ 22″ E. Elevation above the sea, 2824 feet. Although 50 miles inland, this hill is visible from the sea in fine weather, and is a recognised landmark. At the foot of the hill, is the village of Nágari (pop. in 1871, 2400) with a railway station.

Nagar Khás.—Village in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 42′ N., long. 82° 43′ E. Situated on the northern bank of the Chanda Tál Lake. Residence of a petty Rájá.

Nágarkoil.—Town in the State of Travancore, Madras. Lat. 8° 11′ N., long. 77° 28′ 41″ E.; pop. (1876), 6941; number of houses, 1677. A suburb of Kotár, once the seat of the Travancore Government, and the headquarters of a District with courts and other Government offices. It is also the centre of a large Christian population. The London Mission Society is established here, and has a good school and printing-press. Nágarkoil publishes the only newspaper in the State; and has a reputation for fine lace-work, done by the Mission converts.

Nagar Kot.—Ancient town in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* KANGRA.

Nagar Párkar.—*Táluk* of the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency, Sind; bordering on the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh). Pop. (1872), 33,259; gross revenue (1873-74), £3538.

Nagar Párkar.—Chief town and municipality of Nagar Párkar *táluk*, Sind; situated in lat. 24° 21′ N., and long. 70° 47′ 30″ E., 120 miles south of Umarkot. Connected by good roads with Islámkot, Mitti, Adigáon, Pitápur, Biráni, and Bela in Cutch (Kachchh). Head-quarters of a *múkhtiárkár* and *tappádár*, with the usual public buildings. Pop. (1872), 2355; municipal revenue (1873-74), £221. Manufactures—weaving and dyeing of cloth. Local trade in cotton, wool, grain, cocoa-nuts, piece-goods, hides, tobacco, and metals; transit trade in grain, camels, cattle, wool, and *ghí*. The town is believed to be of some antiquity; about a mile distant is Sardhára with a temple to Mahádeo, and a spring sacred among Hindus. In 1839, Nagar Párkar was the scene of a rebellion, for the suppression of which a British force was despatched from Haidarábád (Hyderábád). The ringleaders were transported for a term of years.

Nagaur.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 27° 11′ 15″ N., and long. 73° 46′ 15″ E., in a jungle-covered plain; distant 84 miles north-west from Nasírábád, and 75 north-east from Jodhpur city. Nagaur was first occupied by Chanda, chief of the Rahtor Rájputs, about 1382 A.D. With a valuable adjacent territory, it was for centuries regarded as the appanage of the heir to the *gadi* of Jodhpur. It was several times occupied temporarily by the Musalmán forces,—once notably by Akbar in 1562 A.D., who conferred it on the chief of Bíkaner; it was, however, subsequently recovered by Jodhpur. It now belongs to a feudatory of Jodhpur, and was once so prosperous that it is said to have paid £7500 annually from commercial imposts alone. A superior breed of cattle is reared in the neighbourhood.

Nágavali.—River, Madras.—*See* LANGULIYA.

Nagávaram.—Agricultural town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 17° 13′ 40″ N., long. 81° 22′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 6271; number of houses, 1050.

Nagdirgrám.—Village in Cáchár District, Assam; situated at the junction of the Rukhmini river with the Sonái, 10 miles south of Silchár, with which it is connected by a good road. In January 1871, a Bengalí settlement here was cut to pieces by a party of Lusháis. This outrage was an incident in the raid which led to the retributive Lushái expedition of the following year.

Naggery.—Town and railway station in North Arcot District, Madras. —*See* NAGARI NOSE.

Nagína.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-

Western Provinces; consisting chiefly of a submontane and well-watered tract, bordering on the Garhwál Hills. Area, 474 square miles, of which 226 are cultivated. Pop. (1872), 165,115; land revenue, £25,290; total Government revenue, £27,841; rental paid by cultivators, £43,160; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 7⅝d.

Nagína.—Municipal town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1872), 19,696, consisting of 7465 Hindus, 12,215 Muhammadans, and 16 'others.' Lies in lat. 29° 27′ 5″ N., and long. 78° 28′ 50″ E., on the road from Hardwár to Moradábád, 48 miles north-west of the latter town. Founded by the Patháns, who built the fort, now used as a *tahsílí*. Headquarters of the District during the early days of British rule, until 1824. Formerly celebrated for its manufacture of gun-barrels; at present, for ebony carvings, glass-ware, ropes, and matchlocks. Large exports of sugar. Seat of a *munsif*. The rebels were decisively defeated here on 21st April 1858, and Bijnaur District was recovered for the British. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £1595; from taxes, £974, or 11¾d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Nágkanda.—Pass in Kumharsain State, Punjab, lying in lat. 31° 15′ N., and long. 77° 31′ E., over a ridge proceeding eastward from Wártu peak. Rest-house on summit. Elevation above sea level, 9016 feet.

Nagode (*Nagaudh* or *Uchahara*).—Petty State in Bághelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Bounded on the north-east by the States of Suháwal and Rewah, on the east by Rewah, on the south-east by Maihar, and on the west by Panna. Estimated area in 1875, 450 square miles; pop. 75,000; revenue, about £15,000, of which £7000 is alienated in *jágírs* and religious and charitable grants. The Jabalpur extension of the East Indian Railway passes through the State. Nagode was originally included as one of the feudatories of Panna in the *sanad* granted to Rájá Kisori Sinh. But as the State had been in the possession of the Parihar ancestors of Lál Sheoráj Sinh before the establishment of the power of Chhatar Sál in Bundelkhand, and the family had never been dispossessed either by the Bundela Rájás or by Alí Bahádur, a *sanad* was given to Lál Sheoráj Sinh in 1809, confirming him in the possession of his territory. He was succeeded in 1818 by his son, Balbhadra Sinh, who was deposed in 1831 for the murder of his brother. Raghubind, son of Balbhadra, was then a minor, and the State was therefore temporarily taken under British administration. On attaining his majority in 1838, Raghubind was installed. The Rájá rendered good service during the Mutiny, and was rewarded by a grant of land from the confiscated State of Bijerághogarh, the right of adoption, and the honour of a salute of 9 guns. Raghubind died in 1874, and was succeeded by his son, Jadhu Bind Sinh, the present Rájá, who is

a Parihar Rájput. The military force consists of 2 guns and 116 infantry and police. In the *Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal* for 1874, page 109, will be found an account of the antiquities of this State.

Nagode.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Bághelkhand, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 33′ 45″ N., and long. 80° 37′ 55″ E., on the route by Rewah from Ságar (Saugor) to Allahábád, 110 miles north-west of Jabalpur. Site of a cantonment for British troops. There is a fort here, in which the Rájá resides, built on the Amran, a tributary of the Tons, at an elevation of 1099 feet above the level of the sea.

Nagore.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras.—*See* NAGAR.

Nágothna.—Town in Kolába District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 32′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 10′ 55″ E., 20 miles from the mouth of the river Amba, which is navigable by boats of considerable burden up to this point. The town is consequently much frequented by travellers proceeding from Bombay to the south-eastern part of the Deccan, as they can, by sailing across Bombay harbour and up the river, reach Nágothna in a single tide, and thence continue their journey by land. A road, 70 miles in length, runs from this place to Mahábleshwar, and another running north-east joins the Bombay and Poona road at the foot of the Borghát. When the Konkan belonged to the kings of Bijápur, Nágothna marked the northern limit of their dominions. It is distant 40 miles south-west from Bombay. Average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £5836, and exports, £31,423. Post office.

Nágpur.—Division of the Central Provinces, comprising the Districts of NAGPUR, BHANDARA, CHANDA, WARDHA, BALAGHAT, and UPPER GODAVARI, all of which see separately. Pop. (1872), 2,439,675; area, 24,035 square miles.

Nágpur.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 36′ and 21° 43′ N. lat., and between 78° 17′ and 79° 42′ E. long. It forms an irregular triangle, with its eastern base resting on Bhandára, its northern side bounded by Chhindwára and Seoní, and its south-western side by Wardhá. At its south-eastern angle, it adjoins Chánda District, while, on the west, its apex touches Berar. Population in 1872, 631,109 souls; area (Parliamentary Abstract, 1878), 3786 square miles. The administrative headquarters are at NAGPUR CITY.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Nágpur lies immediately below the great tableland of the Sátpura range. Its northern frontier is one continuous chain of hills. At its western extremity, this chain consists of spurs from the Sátpuras; but farther east, those mountains themselves form the boundary. A second great division of hills shuts in the District on the south-western side, reaching its highest point south-west of Kátol,

where the hill of Kharkí rises almost 2000 feet above sea level. Across the country thus enclosed, a third range runs from north to south, parting it into two great plains of very unequal size, which, with the hills that bound them, occupy nearly the whole of the District. In this range, the hills are bare and sterile, with rugged and often grotesque outlines. They culminate in the height named Pilkápár, 1899 feet above the sea. Towards the south-east, however, the boundary of Nágpur runs at some distance below the second hill chain, thus including within the District the richly cultivated valley of the Nánd river on the southern side of the hills. This tract naturally belongs to the great Wardhá cotton field, of which it forms the most eastern and elevated part. The three hill ranges must all be regarded as offshoots belonging to the Sátpuras on the north. They nowhere attain any great elevation. While the heights themselves are rocky and sterile, the valleys and lowlands at their feet possess a rich and fertile soil. In the midst of barren hills, covered only with loose boulders and low scrub, the traveller unexpectedly looks down upon valleys studded with fruit-trees, and smiling with corn and garden cultivation. Strips of highly cultivated soil rise from the plain below, and creep through the gorges and up the hillside, until they suddenly lose themselves in rock and brushwood. In the contrasts thus offered between hill and dale, jungle and homestead, desert and garden, the most striking feature of the hill scenery is to be found.

Of the two great plains, that to the west of Pilkápár slopes down to the river Wardhá, beyond which lies East Berar. This western tract is watered by the Jám and the Madár, on their way to join the Wardhá, and contains the most highly cultivated land in the District; everywhere it abounds with mango and other fruit trees, and teems with the richest garden cultivation. The great plain on the eastern side of the Pilkápár range, at least six times larger than the other, stretches away to the confines of Bhandára and Chánda. It consists of a rich undulating country, luxuriant with mango groves and trees of all sorts, and dotted towards the east with countless small tanks. Its general slope is towards the Wainganga, which flows for a short distance between Nágpur and Bhandára. Through this plain, the perennial stream of the Kanhán (which receives the Pench, the Kolár, the Waná, the Sur, and the Bor) flows between high banks, in a narrow channel deep below the surface of the country, along a sandy bed, barred here and there with jagged ledges of rock. In a flood, the waters swell with extraordinary rapidity, and pour down in impetuous torrents to the Wainganga. Here and there rises a solitary height, such as the Haldolí Hills in the south-east, 1300 feet high; the heights at Chápgarhí and Bhiokúnd; and, in the north-east of the District, the sacred hill of Rántek. The last attains an elevation of 1400

feet above the sea. It is in the form of a horse-shoe, with the heel towards the south-east. At its outer extremity, towards the north, the cliff is scarped, rising sheer from the base about 500 feet. On the summit are the old fortress and the temples; below, in the hollow formed by the inner sides of the hill, and embosomed in groves of mango and tamarind, nestles a lake, its margin adorned with temples, and enclosed by broad flights of steps of hewn stone, reaching down to the water. From the summit, the prospect is wide and magnificent. Lastly, in the middle of the plain stands the isolated little hill crowned by the Sítábaldí fort, commanding an extensive view, and interesting both from its historical associations and its geological importance. Within the limits of the horizon, as seen from its summit, every formation belonging to the District is to be found. Indeed, the circuit of a few hundred yards presents an epitome of the geology of the Peninsula. On the hill-top, the surface is strewn with nodular trap. A few yards below, in the scarped face of the hill, may be traced a shallow layer of fresh-water formation; below this, a soft bluish tufa, which passes into a porous amygdaloid, and deeper, into an exceedingly fine augitic greenstone. At the base of the hill, beneath the basalt, is sandstone; and below the sandstone, gneiss. This juxtaposition of volcanic and plutonic rocks, enclosing between them the wreck of a vast sandstone formation, invests the geology of Nágpur with particular interest. Over more than half the area of the District, trap is the surface rock. The serrated outline of the Baláhí Hills near Bhandára indicates the crystalline formations which extend down to Cuttack, as the flattened summits characterise the trap. In the upper part of the Waná valley, and northwards from Nágpur up the basins of the Kolár, the Kanhán, and the Pench, sandstone formations predominate. In some few parts, as at Maundá, and near Umrer, beds of laterite occur on the surface. The superficial deposits are the *regar* or black cotton-soil, and the red soil. The former is found almost universally with trap, and seldom exceeds 12 feet in depth. The red soil is sometimes as deep as 50 feet, and occurs with plutonic rocks, sandstone, or laterites. Neither deposit is fossiliferous.

History.—The first rulers in this part of the country are said to have been the mythical Gaulí chieftains, whose exploits yet live in the songs of the villagers. Our historical knowledge of Nágpur, however, begins with the 16th century, when the District formed part of the Gond kingdom of Deogarh. Jatba, the first Ráj-Gond ruler who resided below the Gháts, perhaps a younger brother of the Deogarh king, constructed a strong fortress on the Bhiogarh Hill, commanding the chief passes from Chhindwára to the plains of Nágpur. The numerous Gond forts which now stud the District with their ruins, were probably built by him and his descendants to protect new batches of settlers,

while the country around was being brought under the plough. Three or four generations later, about A.D. 1700, Bakht Buland raised the Deogarh kingdom to its greatest prosperity. His successful wars widely extended his dominion, while the connection he formed with Delhi, and his freedom from religious prejudices, led him to encourage the immigration of artificers and agriculturists, both Hindu and Muhammadan. Not least of his achievements was the foundation of the city of Nágpur, which was walled in and made the capital by Chánd Sultán, the next king. On Chánd Sultán's death in 1739, Wáli Sháh, a natural son of Bakht Buland, usurped the throne. The widow of the dead king called in Raghojí Bhonslá from Berar, to support her two sons, Burhán Sháh and Akbar Sháh. Wali Sháh was slain, and the rightful heirs placed on the throne. Raghojí then retired to Berar. Dissensions, however, speedily arose between the two brothers, resulting in a bloody civil war. In 1743, the elder brother invited the support once more of Raghojí Bhonslá, who was again successful. Akbar Sháh was driven into exile, and finally poisoned at Haidarábád (Hyderábád). But this time Raghojí did not retire. He now constituted himself protector; and while Burhán Sháh retained the title of Rájá, with a pension, both of which his descendants have since held, Raghojí took all real power into his own hands, and, making Nágpur his capital, quickly reduced all Deogarh to own his authority. The nominal supremacy left to the deposed princes was probably intended to show that the Bhonslás held the Nágpur territory from the Gonds, and not, like the other chiefs of the Marhattá confederation, by favour of the Peshwá. Nevertheless, in 1744, Raghojí took advantage of the difficulties in which the Peshwá found himself, to obtain from him a *sanad* conferring the right of levying tribute from Berar to Cuttack. In 1750, he received new *sanads* for Berar, Gondwána, and Bengal. By his successful foreign wars, the first and greatest of the Bhonslá princes extended his rule over a wide country; and he was still in his full career of aggression when he died, at Nágpur, in March 1755. Raghojí was succeeded at Nágpur by his eldest son, Jánojí, while Chánda and Chhatísgarh were given as an appanage to a younger son, named Madhojí. Jánojí at first devoted himself to settling the territory left him by his father, but when hostilities began between the Nizám and the youthful Peshwá, Jánojí sold his support to each side by turns. At last, disgusted by his treachery, the Peshwá and the Nizám in 1765 united their forces against Jánojí, burned down Nágpur, and forced the Rájá to disgorge the greater part of the money he had received. Four years later, a treaty was concluded between Jánojí and the Peshwá, in which the dependence of the Bhonslás was fully acknowledged. Three years afterwards, Jánojí died. Before his death, he had adopted his nephew Raghojí, the son of Madhojí of

Chánda. But while Madhojí with his son were on their way to Nágpur, Sábájí, another brother of the late king, seized the vacant throne. The civil war which followed ended on the battle-field of Pánchgáon, where Madhojí killed his brother with his own hand. Madhojí then governed as regent for the rest of his life. In 1777, he first entered into relations with the English, to whom he displayed a friendly policy throughout. His death took place in 1788.

Hitherto the dominions of the Bhonslás had enjoyed great prosperity under their rough and soldier-like rule. Justice was well administered, crimes were few, and the people comfortable and contented. The reign of Raghojí II. brought with it other times. It began successfully with extensions of the Nágpur power, and with close relations with the English. In 1798, Mr. Colebrooke was appointed Resident to the court of Raghojí. Before long, however, Mr. Colebrooke withdrew, and Raghojí united with Sindhia to oppose the British Government. The battles of Assaye and Argáon (Argaum) shattered the forces of the confederates; and by the treaty of Deogáon, Raghojí lost nearly a third of his kingdom, and engaged to receive permanently a Resident at Nágpur. Still the rapacious Rájá endeavoured to extract from his diminished territory a revenue far beyond its means; and his exactions, together with the raids of the Pindárís, utterly desolated the present District of Nágpur. Raghojí died in 1816. His son, the blind and paralyzed Pawojí, soon after became perfectly imbecile. A contest for the regency between the widow and Apá Sáhib, the nephew of the late Rájá, ended in the success of the latter. A few months later, the Rájá was found dead in his bed, poisoned, as was subsequently proved, by his cousin and successor. As soon as Apá Sáhib felt himself safe on his throne, his bearing, hitherto so cordial to the British, entirely changed. His avowal of friendship with the Peshwá, then in arms against the British, together with the concentration of his troops at Nágpur, at length induced the Resident to summon what force he could, and to occupy the hill of Sítábaldí. During the 26th and 27th November 1817, the small English army had to endure the repeated attacks of the Nágpur troops, and at one time were driven from the smaller of the two eminences which form the Sítábaldí position. A desperate fight, however, finally ended in the complete defeat of the enemy. Apá Sáhib attempted to disavow any connection with the attack, but the Resident had been strengthened by fresh troops, and he now demanded the surrender of the Rájá, and the disbandment of his army. The first point was conceded; the second was not gained till a battle had been fought close to Nágpur, in which, after an obstinate resistance, the Marhattás were utterly routed. At first, it was resolved to retain Apá Sáhib on the throne, subject to the control of the British; but his fresh intrigues, and the discovery of his complicity in the murder of his

cousin, caused his arrest. Apá Sáhib succeeded, however, in escaping to the Mahádeo Hills, and ultimately made his way to the Punjab. A grandson of Raghojí II., still of tender years, was now raised to the throne under the title of Raghojí III. During his minority, the Resident administered the country till 1830. On his death in 1853, without issue, the State was declared to have lapsed to the British Government; and was administered down to 1861 by a commission of officers under the Commissioner of the 'Nágpur Province.'

When tidings of the Mutiny reached Nágpur in May 1857, a scheme for rising was immediately formed in the lines of the irregular cavalry, in conjunction with the Musalmáns of the city. The night of June the 13th was the time agreed upon, and the ascent of a fire-balloon from the city was to give the signal to the cavalry. Meantime, to allay suspicion, the cavalry formally volunteered for service against the mutineers in Upper India. On the 13th June, a few hours before the time fixed, a squadron received orders to march towards Seoní as part of a force moving northward from Kámthi (Kamptee). This took them by surprise, and they at once sent a *dafádár*, named Dáúd Khán, to the infantry lines to rouse the regiment. Dáúd Khán was, however, seized by the first man he addressed. It was now discovered that the cavalry were saddling their horses, and the alarm became general; the ladies were sent for safety to Kámthi, and troops summoned from that place; cannon were brought up to defend the arsenal, and the guns on the Sítábaldí Hill got into position. Everything now depended on the temper of the regular infantry and cavalry. When Lieutenant Cumberlege went to take command, he found that the regiment had fallen in of their own accord, ready to execute any orders. The conspirators in the city now knew they had failed, and the fire-balloon was never sent up. The cavalry too lost all heart, and unsaddled their horses. Subsequently they were turned out without arms, and with the regular infantry and cavalry in front and on each flank. Several of the native officers, together with two Musalmáns of the city, both men of high birth and position, were convicted and hanged from the ramparts of the fort overlooking the city. On the 24th June, the irregular cavalry were disarmed, and the men kept under surveillance in their own lines. In November they were again armed, and employed towards Sambalpur, where they performed their duties well. A squadron, which was composed almost entirely of Marhattás, appears to have been implicated in this affair equally with the Musalmáns. In this crisis, the judgment and resolution of Mr. Ellis and his coadjutor, Mr. Ross, averted a great calamity.

In 1861, the 'Nágpur Province' was amalgamated with the 'Ságar and Narbadá Territories,' the whole forming the present Central Provinces, with the headquarters of the administration at Nágpur city.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Nágpur District at 639,341. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 631,109. The latest estimate, in 1877, indicates a total of 663,300. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 631,109 persons on an area calculated, at that time, as 3734 square miles, residing in 1657 villages or townships and in 121,119 houses; persons per square mile, 169·02, a density nowhere exceeded in the Central Provinces, except in Narsinhpur; villages per square mile, 0·44; houses per square mile, 32·44; persons per village, 380·37; persons per house, 5·21. Classified according to sex, there were, males, 321,440; females, 309,669. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 117,768; the female children, 109,490. Ethnical division in 1877—Europeans, 2335; Eurasians, 876; aboriginal tribes, 41,388; Hindus, 576,176; Muhammadans, 36,699; Buddhists and Jains, 3188. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds, 39,082 in 1872; the remainder chiefly consisting of Kandhs. Among the Hindus the Bráhmans in 1872 numbered 19,581; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Kunbis, 132,237; Dhers or Mhars, 99,565; Telis, 47,477; Koshtis, 31,797; Mális, 26,303; and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 2525.

Division into Town and Country.—Nine towns in Nágpur District had a population in 1872 exceeding 5000, viz.—NAGPUR CITY, 84,441; KAMTHI, 48,831; UMRER, 11,394; KHAPA, 8007; NARKHER, 7159; RAMTEK, 7045; MOHPA, 5572; SAONER, 5295; and BELA, 5012. Townships of from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 58; from 200 to 1000, 617; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 973. Of the 8 municipalities, the population within municipal limits is as follows:—Nágpur, 89,449; Kámthi, 51,582; Umrer, 12,092; Khápa, 8497; Rámtek, 7476; Sáoner, 1618; Kalmeswar, 5026; and Mowár, 4305. Thus, the ratio of the urban to the strictly rural population is considerably higher than in any other District of the Central Provinces.

Agriculture.—Of the total area (3786 square miles), 1855 are cultivated; and of the portion lying waste, 706 square miles are returned as cultivable; 12,492 acres are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise; the Government assessment is at the rate of 1s. 6d. per acre on the cultivated area. The agricultural produce consists of three classes—the *rabí* or spring crops, the *kharíf* or rain crops, and the *bágháit* or garden crops. Wheat is the grand *rabí* crop, and was grown in 1876 on 288,637 acres. Other food grains occupied 551,493 acres; while 191,483 were devoted to oil-seeds. Of the *kharíf* crops, by far the most important is cotton, which was grown on 120,449 acres. The garden cultivation, which is confined to the best black soil, produced sugar-cane on 1656 acres, and tobacco on 958 acres, besides vegetables

of different kinds. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 4925 proprietors, of whom 3066 were classified as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered over 34,000, of whom 12,325 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 21,994 were tenants-at-will. Of late years, the condition of the husbandmen has generally improved, the wider market now opened to them having more than compensated for the rise in prices. The rent rates per acre in 1876 for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat or inferior grain, 1s. 9d.; for oil-seeds, 1s. 5d.; for cotton, 1s. 9d.; for sugar-cane, 4s. 7d. Average produce per acre—wheat, 400 lbs.; inferior grain, 306 lbs.; oil-seeds, 248 lbs.; cotton, 80 lbs.; sugar (*gúr*), 800 lbs. The prices per cwt. were—wheat, 6s.; linseed, 9s. 2d.; cotton, 54s. 8d.; refined sugar, 36s. 6d. Skilled labourers received up to 11d. per diem; unskilled, as low as 2d. On the forest lands, which cover an area of 320,000 acres, most of the fine timber has been felled; but under the present system of conservation, the saplings are making progress. Of forest fruit-trees, the most important is the *mahuá*, from the flowers of which is distilled *dárú*, the spirituous liquor most used in the District.

Commerce and Trade.—The principal exports consist of raw cotton, grain and other agricultural produce, and cloth; the principal imports are salt, sugar, English piece and miscellaneous goods, cattle, hardware, and cutlery. The exports considerably exceed the imports in value, and therefore large quantities of gold and silver are sent into the District from Bombay. The manufacture of common cotton cloth is declining, owing to the competition of machine-made stuffs from England. Kámthi is by far the largest entrepôt for wheat, rice, and other grain; but the cotton produced in Nágpur mostly finds its way to Hinganghát in Wardhá District, or to Amráotí in Berar, from whence it is transported to Bombay. There were, in 1876, 207 miles of roads in Nágpur. The chief lines are the northern road to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), the eastern road to Bhandára, the southern road to Chánda, and the north-western road to Chhindwára, the last of which is still incomplete. The Nágpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway leaves the main line at Bhosáwal, and terminates at Sítábaldí, the western suburb of Nágpur; it has a station also at Bori. Twenty-six miles of this line lie within the District.

Administration. — In 1861, Nágpur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1876-77, £135,220, of which the land revenue yielded £83,416. The *pándhri*, a kind of house tax, is peculiar to this part of the country. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £18,854. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 16; magistrates, 23. Maximum distance from any village to

the nearest court, 38 miles; average distance, 21 miles. Number of police, 1024, costing £18,356; being 1 policeman to about every 5 miles and to every 641 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 785, of whom 45 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £5869. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 170, attended by 9268 pupils. During the year 1876-77, no less than 70,593 persons visited the Nágpur Museum.

Medical Aspects.—The year is divided into three seasons: the hot, from the beginning of April to the beginning of June; the rainy season sets in in June, and lasts till September, the latter month and October being generally close and sultry, though refreshed by occasional showers; the cold weather occupies the intervening months till the ensuing April. In 1876, the temperature in the shade at the civil station was returned as follows:—May, highest reading 116° F., lowest 76·5° F.; July, highest 101·7° F., lowest 71·2° F.; December, highest 85·4° F., lowest 47·1° F. The rainfall in 1876 amounted to 37·42 inches, being slightly below the average. From the middle of September to the middle of December is the most unhealthy period of the year. The prevailing disease is fever, but cholera is occasionally epidemic; of late years, the ravages of small-pox have been materially lessened by vaccination. During the five years ending 1875, the reported deaths showed a rate per thousand of 18·54. Nágpur has a lunatic asylum, and a medical school; and during the year 1876, 8 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 94,210 in-door and out-door patients.

Nágpur.—The central *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 244,626, residing in 417 villages or townships and 46,469 houses; area, 834 square miles.

Nágpur.—Chief town of Nágpur District, and the seat of administration of the Central Provinces; situated in the centre of the District, in lat. 21° 9′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 7′ E., on a small stream called the Nág. Pop. (1872), 84,441. The municipal limits include, besides the city proper, the suburb of Sítábaldí, the European station of Sítábaldí with Táklí, and a considerable area of land (chiefly black soil) under cultivation. In the centre stands Sítábaldí Hill, crowned with the fort, which commands a fine view of the country round. Below, on the north and west, lies the prettily wooded station of Sítábaldí. Beyond, to the north, are the military lines and *bázárs;* and again beyond these, the suburb of Táklí, once the headquarters of the Nágpur irregular force, but now occupied only by a few bungalows. Close under the southern side of the hill is the native suburb of Sítábaldí. Below the eastern glacis is the railway terminus. Beyond this lies the broad sheet of water known as the Jamá Taláo, and farther east is the city, completely hidden in a mass of foliage. Three great roads connect the city with

the European station, two of which are respectively on the north and south banks of the lake, while the third, the most northern, crosses the railway by a bridge to the north of the terminus. The handsome tanks and gardens outside the city were constructed by the Marhattá princes. The three finest tanks are the Jumá Taláo, Ambájharí, and Telingkherí, which supply a considerable portion of Nágpur with water. The chief gardens are the Mahárájа Bágh, in the station of Sítábaldí, the Tulsí Bágh, inside the city, and the four suburban gardens of Páldí, Shakardára, Sonágáon, and Telingkherí. Of the numerous Hindu temples, some are in the best style of Marhattá architecture, with elaborate carvings. The Bhonslá palace, built of black basalt, and profusely ornamented with wood carving, was burnt down in 1864, and only the great 'Nakárkhána' gate remains. The tombs of the Bhonslá kings are in the Sukrawári quarter, to the south of the city.

Nágpur does a large and increasing trade, the chief imports being wheat and other grain, salt, country cloth, European piece and miscellaneous goods, silk, and spices. The chief article of manufacture and export is cloth. The finer fabrics of Nágpur have long been famous, and are still, in spite of the competition of English stuffs, in great request. Large weekly *bázárs* (markets) are held in the Gurganj Square and in the Gachí Págá. Most of the public offices are in the civil station of Sítábaldí, including the old Nágpur Residency, now the official residence of the Chief Commissioner, a plain but commodious building in well-wooded grounds, and the Secretariat, a large and substantial edifice. The city contains the Small Cause Court, the *tahsíli*, the Honorary Magistrates' Court, and the police station-houses. Other institutions are—the Nágpur central jail, built to contain 1060 prisoners; the city hospital, with three branch dispensaries in different quarters of the town; the lunatic asylum; the leper asylum; the Sítábaldí poorhouse; the Free Church Mission Native School; and the Bishop's School, for the education of European and Eurasian boys. There are three public *saráis* (native inns), besides several private *dharmsálás* for similar purposes. The military force consists of a small detachment from the English regiment at Kámthi (Kamptee), and the headquarters and wing of a regiment of Native infantry. The former garrison the fort (built in 1819); the arsenal, just below the fort, contains considerable stores and munitions of war. Both town and station are considered healthy.

Nagrám.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated about midway between the two roads from Lucknow to Sultánpur and Rái Bareli. Pop. (1869), nearly 5000. Annual *bázár* sales, about £3550, the principal trade being in rice, which is largely cultivated in the neighbourhood. Two schools, one for boys and one for girls. Said to have been founded by Rájá Nal, a Bhar chieftain, the site of whose

fort still exists. It fell within the track of Sayyid Sálár's invasion; but it was afterwards again left to the Bhars, who held it till they were expelled by the Kumhráwán Amethiá Rájputs, a branch of the family established at Amethia Dingur. They were afterwards expelled by the Muhammadans, although they subsequently succeeded in regaining a portion of their possessions. Sayyids hold two out of the three divisions (*tarafs*) of the place.

Nagwán.—Village in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 50′ N., long. 78° 19′ E. (Thornton); lies on the Budíya stream, a feeder of the Jumna (Jamuná), close to their confluence. According to Hindu belief, the Ganges reaches the village by a subterranean course, and breaks out in a neighbouring spring.

Náhan (or *Sirmur*).—Native State in the Punjab.—*See* SIRMUR.

Náhan.—Capital of SIRMUR Hill State, and residence of the Rájá, situated about 40 miles south of Simla, at the western extremity of the Kyarda Dún, and from its elevated position (3207 feet) visible from the plains at a considerable distance. Moorcroft describes it as cleaner and handsomer than the generality of Indian towns. Náhan is built on the uneven crest of a rocky eminence; the houses are small, built of stone cemented with lime. The Rájá's dwelling is a large edifice of stone in the centre of the town. Three Hindu temples. Large, well-supplied *bázár*. Náhan was occupied by the British during the Nepal war of 1814, and at the close of the campaign was restored to the Rájá of Sírmur, from whom it had been wrested by the Gúrkhas.

Nahára.—One of the petty States in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, $1\frac{3}{4}$ square mile. There are two chiefs. Estimated revenue (1875). £40; tribute of £2, 10s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Náigáon Ribahi.—Petty State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Bounded on the south by the Chhatarpur State; on all other sides, it lies within Hamírpur District of the North-Western Provinces. The area was estimated in 1875 at 16 square miles, the population at 3360 persons, and the revenue at £1037. Lakshman Sinh, one of the banditti leaders of Bundelkhand, having been induced to surrender after some resistance on promise of pardon, received in 1807 a *sanad* for 5 villages. On his death in 1808, he was succeeded by his son Jagat Sinh. In 1850, it was decided that the State is held merely on a life tenure, and ought to have been resumed on the death of Lakshman Sinh. It was continued to Jagat Sinh, however, who had been so long in possession, on the distinct understanding that it was to lapse absolutely at his death. At his earnest request, the Government allowed his widow, Thákurani Larái Dulaiya, to succeed after his death, which occurred in 1867.

Náiháti (*Nyehattee*).—Municipal town in the District of the Twenty-

four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 53′ 50″ N., long. 88° 27′ 40″ E.; pop. (1872), 23,730. Station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 23½ miles from Calcutta. Municipal revenue (1872), £660, 4s.; rate of taxation, 6⅝d. per head of population; police force, 48 men. English school.

Náin.—Small village in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 14 miles from Rái Bareli town. Pop. (1869), 827, of whom all but 16 are Hindus. The headquarters of a branch of the Kanhpuria clan, reported to be the most turbulent Kshattriyas in Oudh. During native rule, constant fighting took place between the landholders and the king's troops; and in 1857, the Náin *tálukdárs* joined the rebel soldiery, and plundered the station of Parshádepur.

Náini Tál.—Hill station in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 22′ N., long. 79° 29′ 35″ E. Picturesquely situated on the banks of a beautiful little lake, which nestles among the spurs of the Himálayas. Favourite sanitarium and summer resort of Europeans from the plains. It is also the headquarters of the Government of the North-Western Provinces during the hot weather. Exquisite scenery among the surrounding hills. Elevation above sea level, 6409 feet. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £4255; from taxes, £2484. The population within municipal limits, about 6000 under ordinary circumstances, increases enormously during the height of the season.

Najafgarh.—Village in Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 18′ N., long. 80° 36′ E. (Thornton); distant from Cawnpore 16 miles south-east. Chiefly noticeable for the palace, in mixed Indian and European style, built by General Martin, the well-known French adventurer and partisan soldier, who amassed a considerable fortune. Local manufacture of indigo grown in the surrounding country.

Najafgarh Jhíl.—Large straggling lake or marsh in Gurgáon and Delhi Districts, Punjab, lying between 28° 26′ 30″ and 28° 34′ N. lat., and between 76° 56′ and 77° 4′ 30″ E. long. Its various branches measure in all 46 miles, and when full, in October, it submerges about 27,000 acres. Torrents from the Gurgáon Hills feed the lake, which is then drained into the Jamuná (Jumna), by means of an escape channel, so as to allow of cultivation on the submerged land. Only partial success, however, has attended these operations, owing to the want of sufficient fall. The scene of an important defeat of the rebels by General Nicholson during the Mutiny of 1857.

Najíbábád.—Northern *tahsíl* of Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Ganges and the Garhwál Hills. Area, 494 square miles, of which 168 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 411,685; land revenue, £21,267; total Government revenue, £23,439; rental paid by cultivators, £40,980; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 4⅛d.

Najíbábád.—Municipal town in Bijnaur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Pop. (1872), 17,418, consisting of 9475 Hindus, 7936 Muhammadans, and 7 'others.' Lies in lat. 29° 36′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 23′ 10″ E., on the banks of the Málin Nadi stream, 31 miles south-east of Hardwár. Founded by the Nawáb Najíb-ud-daulá, who erected the square brick fort of Pathargarh, 1 mile east of the town, in 1755. His tomb is a handsome building, surrounded by numerous apartments; and the Kothi Mubárak Banyád remains as a monument of his magnificence within the town. To the north stands the tomb of his brother, Jahángír Khán. Large through traffic in timber from the Bhábar forests. Manufactures of brass, copper, and iron work, blankets, cotton cloth, and shoes. Imports of grain; exports of sugar. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1682; from taxes, £1122, or 1s. 0⅛d. per head of the population (19,656) within municipal limits.

Náko.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 52′ N., long. 78° 40′ E. (Thornton); lies in the Kunáwar Hills, 1 mile from the left bank of the Li, or river of Spiti. Chiefly noticeable as being the highest inhabited place in the principality. Elevation above sea level, 11,850 feet.

Nakodár. — South-western *tahsíl* of Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, lying along the bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), between 30° 56′ 30″ and 31° 15′ N. lat., and between 75° 6′ 15″ and 75° 39′ E. long.

Nakodár.—Municipality in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 31° 7′ 30″ N., long. 75° 31′ E.; pop. (1868), 8800, consisting of 3362 Hindus, 5314 Muhammadans, and 124 Síkhs. Originally belonged to Hindu Kambohs, but held during historical times hy a family of Musalmán Rájputs, on whom it was conferred in *jágír* during the reign of Jahángír. They were ousted early in the Síkh period by Sardár Tára Sinh, Ghaiba, who built a fort, and made himself master of the surrounding territory. Seized by Ranjít Sinh in 1816. *Tahsílí*, police station, post office, dispensary, *sarái;* grant-in-aid vernacular school, 2 indigenous girls' schools. Brisk trade in grain, tobacco, and sugar. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £342, or 9¼d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Nakpur.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated on the Tons river, 52 miles from Faizábád town. Pop. (1869), 2817, viz. 1569 Muhammadans and 1248 Hindus. Founded by Muhammad Naki about 300 years ago.

Nakur.—South-western *tahsíl* of Sahâranpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the east bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), and watered in part by the Eastern Jumna Canal. Area, 423 square miles, of which 286 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 189,022; land revenue, £26,278; total Government revenue, £29,049; rental paid by cul-

tivators, £37,394; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 11¼d.

Nál.—One of the petty Bhíl States in what are known as the Mehwási (Mowas) tracts of Khandesh, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 275 persons; supposed gross revenue, £90. The principal produce is timber. The chief, Lashkáriwalad Kanha Padir, is a Bhíl.

Nal.—Lake in Ahmedábád District, Bombay, lying between 22° 45′ and 22° 50′ 15″ N. lat., and between 72° 1′ 45″ and 72° 8′ 9″ E. long., about 37 miles south-west of Ahmedábád city. Estimated area, 49 square miles.—(For a description of the lake, see AHMEDABAD DISTRICT, vol. i. p. 63.)

Nalagarh (or *Hindur*).—One of the Punjab Hill States.—*See* HINDUR.

Nalagarh.—Hill range, Punjab.—*See* CHINTPURNI.

Nalápáni (or *Kalanga*).—Hill fort in Dehrá Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 20′ 30″ N., long. 78° 8′ 30″ E. (Thornton). Hastily thrown up by the Gúrkhas on the outbreak of the war of 1814. Perched upon a low Himálayan spur, about 3½ miles north-east of Dehrá. Attacked by General Gillespie, who fell while leading the storming party; desperately defended for a time, but evacuated by the enemy after a second assault, and demolished shortly afterwards by the British. Elevation above sea level, 3286 feet.

Nálatwád.—Municipal town in Kaládgi District, Bombay; situated 56 miles east by north of Kaládgi, in lat. 16° 14′ 40″ N., and long. 76° 19′ 50″ E. Pop. (1872), 4645; municipal income, £126.

Nalbaná (literally '*The Reed Forest*').—Island in the CHILKA LAKE, Bengal. Lat. 19° 41′ 30″ N., long. 85° 20′ E. About 5 miles in circumference, and nowhere more than a few inches above the level of the water. The island is entirely uninhabited, but is regularly visited by parties of thatchers, for the sake of its abundant growth of reeds and high grasses.

Nalbárí.—Trading village and police station in Kámrúp District, Assam. Lat. 26° 25′ 55″ N., long. 91° 27′ 45″ E.; in that portion of the District north of the Brahmaputra.

Nalbárí.—Village in the District of Darrang, Assam; about 20 miles north of the Subdivisional town of Mangaldái; containing the *golás* or storehouses of several Márwárí merchants, who trade with the Cáchárí population.

Nalchha.—Deserted town in Dhar State, Central India; situated in lat. 22° 25′ N., and long. 75° 28′ E., on the route from Mhow (Mau) to Mandu, 27 miles south-west of the former and 6 north of the latter. The situation—on the southern verge of the rich open tableland of Málwá—is very picturesque; a small stream runs near the town, which is also well supplied with water from tanks and wells. *Bázár*. Some

of the ruins are very fine. Thornton says that when Sir John Malcolm converted one of the palatial ruins into a summer residence, a tigress and her cubs were driven out of one of the apartments.

Nalchití.—Municipal village in Bákarganj District, Bengal; situated on a river of the same name, in lat. 22° 37′ 55″ N., and long. 90° 19′ 10″ E. Seat of a large trade: chief exports—rice and betel-nuts; imports—salt, tobacco, oil, and sugar. Municipal income (1869-70), £165; pop. under 5000.

Naldrúg.—Fortified town in the Nizám's Dominions or the State of Haidarábád. The following account of a visit made to the fort in 1853, by Colonel Meadows Taylor, is taken from *The Story of My Life* (pp. 286, 287):—'The fort of Naldrúg was one of the most interesting places I had ever seen. It enclosed the surface of a knoll or plateau of basalt rock, which jutted out into the valley or ravine of the small river Borí from the main plateau of the country, and was almost level. The sides of this knoll were sheer precipices of basalt, here and there showing distinct columnar and prismatic formation, and varying from 50 to 200 feet in height, the edge of the plateau being 200 feet more or less above the river, which flowed at the base of the precipice on two sides of the fort. Along the crest of the cliff, on three sides, run the fortifications—bastions and curtains alternately, some of the former being very firmly built of cut and dressed basalt, and large enough to carry heavy guns; and the parapets of the machicolated curtains were everywhere loop-holed for musketry. On the west side, the promontory joined the main plateau by a somewhat contracted neck, also strongly fortified by a high rampart, with very roomy and massive bastions, below it a fausse-braie, with the same; then a broad, deep, dry ditch, cut for the most part out of the basalt itself; a counterscarp, about 20 or 25 feet high, with a covered way; and beyond it a glacis and esplanade, up to the limits of the town.

'The entire circumference of the enceinte might have been about a mile and a half; and the garrison in former times must have been very large, for nearly the whole of the interior was covered by ruined walls, and had been laid out as a town with a wide street running up the centre. All the walls and bastions were in perfect repair, and the effect of the fort outside was not only grim and massive, but essentially picturesque.

'Naldrúg held a memorable place in local history. Before the Musalmán invasion in the 14th century, it belonged to a local Rájá, who may have been a feudal vassal of the great Rájás of the Chalukya dynasty, 250 to 1200 A.D., whose capital was Kalyáni, about 40 miles distant; but I never could trace its history with any certainty, and during the Hindu period it was only traditional. The Báhmani dynasty, 1351 to 1480 A.D., protected their dominions to the west by a line of massive forts, of which Naldrúg was one; and it was believed that the

former defences, which were little more than mud walls, were replaced by them with fortifications of stone. Afterwards, on the division of the Báhmani kingdom, in 1480 A.D., Naldrúg fell to the lot of the Adíl Sháhi kings of Bijápur; and they, in their turn, greatly increased and strengthened its defences. It was often a point of dissension between the Adíl Sháhi and the Nizám Sháhi potentates—lying, as it did, upon the nominal frontier between Bijápur and Ahmednagar — and was besieged by both in turn, as the condition of the walls on the southern face bore ample testimony, as well from the marks of cannon-balls as from breaches which had afterwards been filled up. In 1558, Alí Adíl Sháh visited Naldrúg, and again added to its fortifications, rebuilt the western face, and constructed an enormous cavalier near the eastern end, which was upwards of 90 feet high, with several bastions on the edges of the cliff; but his greatest work was the erection of a stone dam across the river Borí, which, by retaining the water above it, afforded the garrison an unlimited supply.'

Nalganga.—River rising near Dewalghát, Buldána District, Berar; runs past Malkapur (lat. 21° 53′ N., long. 76° 15′ E.), to the Wagar river, which joins the Púrna. In the hot season, the Nalganga dwindles to a mere chain of pools.

Nalgún. — Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over the range of mountains bounding Kunáwar to the south. Lat. 31° 19′ N., long. 78° 17′ E. (Thornton). A stream of the same name flows north-east from the pass to join the Baspa. Elevation above sea level, 14,891 feet.

Nalia.—One of the petty States in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, half a square mile. There are 2 chiefs. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £60; and tribute of £4 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Naliya.—Town in Cutch State, Bombay. Lat. 23° 18′ N., long. 68° 54′ E.; pop. (1872), 5238.

Nálknád.—Village in the territory of Coorg, and at one time the capital of the State under Rájá Dodda Víra Rájendra, the hero of Coorg independence. Lat. 12° 14′ N., long. 75° 42′ E. The palace, built in 1794, is now partly used for public offices. Close by is a handsome little pavilion, erected by the Rájá in 1796 for the celebration of his second marriage with Mahádevamma. Behind towers the majestic mountain of Tadiándamol.

Nallamaláis (*'Black Hills'*).—Range of Hills in Cuddapah and Karnúl (Kurnool) Districts, Madras, lying between 14° 43′ and 15° 14′ N. lat., and between 78° 43′ and 78° 58′ E. long., stretching from the north bank of the Pennar in Cuddapah to the Kistna in Karnúl; average height above the sea, 2000 feet. The hills are for the most part wooded at the summits, and, save for some aboriginal Chenchus and Yanadis, quite uninhabited. The climate is very malarious, and

wild beasts infest the jungles. The range is of little economical value. The southern portion is often called Lankamalái.

Mr. Gribble gives the following account of the hills :—'The Nallamalái range, a few miles north of Cuddapah, turns almost due north, until it leaves that District and passes through Karnúl to the Kistna, constituting the barrier of hills and deadly jungle which separates the greater portion of Karnúl District from the Head Assistant's Division of Kambham (Cumbum). The Lankamaláis, however, have distinctive features of their own; and striking off as they do from the Nallamaláis at right angles, and so constituting a peculiar feature of one *táluk* (Sidhaut), it is only right that they should have a distinctive name. The hills are haunted by a deadly fever. There is no record of their ever having been thoroughly explored by Europeans, and all the accounts of them are derived from the half-savage jungle tribes who inhabit them, and gain a livelihood by the collection of jungle produce. The forests in the interior of these hills are said to be thick and valuable ; owing to their inaccessibility, they are probably less poached upon than the forests of the other hills. There are few villages ; scarcely any agriculture is carried on, and the *sholas* or glades are difficult of access to the herds of cattle from the Cuddapah and Sidhaut valleys. The most distinctive feature of these hills is that from which they derive their name. The inner valleys contain a large number of lakes, or, as they are termed, "Lankas." In Telugu terminology the word Lanka is generally understood to mean an island—land surrounded by water ; here, it signifies water surrounded by land. All these *lankas*, or lakes, are connected with fabulous tales. . . . At right angles are the Nallamaláis proper, which run due north, from a point on the northern banks of the Pennar about 8 miles from the town of Cuddapah. These hills form a natural boundary between the *táluks* of Badvail on the east, Proddatúr on the west, and Cuddapah on the south. At first they continue on the same level as the Lankamaláis, and share the same features; as they extend farther north, they are of less height, and furnish a not difficult pass, leading from the town of Nandialampet to Badvail. After this, the range, increasing in height and breadth, is cut up by numerous valleys, scarcely ever explored except by robbers, and inhabited by wild beasts, Yanadis (an aboriginal jungle tribe), and fever. These hills are said to be rich in minerals. During the last twenty years more than one attempt has been made to work mines, but the enterprise has always been conquered by disease and sickness. Within the Cuddapah boundaries the hills are not so lofty as in the north, nor are their forests dense or very valuable; but their interior valleys are well watered and green, while a peculiar interest attaches to the northern portion of this range, as the home of one of the forest faces of Southern India, the Chenchu tribe.' Farther north, in Karnúl

District, writes Mr. Gopálakrishnama, 'the Nallamaláis are the most important range of hills; they extend from Chagalamari on the south to the Kistna on the north, a distance of 80 miles; their breadth is 25 miles. There are five plateaux on these hills. The highest peak is Gundla Brahmeshvaram, 3055 feet above sea level, said to have been the seat of the great *Múni* (Saint) Jamadagni. The Gúndlakamma, Zampalleru, and Paleru rivers rise in this hill, near a ruined temple of Brahmeshvaram. The second peak is called Errachelema. There are four passes, named Nandikanama, Jotikanama, Mantralamakanama, and Kortikanama.'

Naltigirí.—A spur of the Assiá range of hills in Cuttack District, Bengal. It has two peaks of unequal height, and bears little vegetation, except a few valuable sandal trees, the only ones found in Orissa. Naltigirí is famous for its Buddhist remains, some of which are in a fair state of preservation.—(For details, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xviii. pp. 94-96).

Námakal.—Town in Salem District, Madras. Lat. 11° 13′ 15″ N., long. 78° 12′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 5553; number of houses, 1144. Námakal is the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name, and the residence of a Deputy Collector. It is built at the foot of a fortified rock (the Durgam), which rises 300 feet above the plain, and is very difficult of access. This citadel was of some importance in the Mysore campaigns, and its outer walls are still in good preservation. It was captured by the English in 1768, only to be lost again a few months later to Haidar. The weavers of Námakal form a numerous community.

Namal (*Nimal*).—Town in Bannu (Bunnoo) District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 5010, consisting of 260 Hindus, 4735 Muhammadans, and 15 Síkhs. Situated on the eastern slope of the Salt Range, in lat. 32° 40′ 15″ N., and long. 71° 51′ E.

Námbar.—River in the Nágá Hills, Assam; tributary to the Dhaneswari. In one portion of its course it forms a fine waterfall, near which are some hot springs (*púng*). It has given its name to an extensive forest reserve.

Nambiyúr.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 21′ 30″ N., long. 77° 22′ E.; pop. (1871), 6890; number of houses, 1442.

Nanái.—River of Assam.—*See* NONAI.

Nanda Devi. — Snow-clad mountain peak in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; one of the higher Himálayan summits. Lat. 30° 22′ N., long. 80° 1′ E. (Thornton); elevation above sea level, 25,661 feet. Almost conical in shape. The summit is inaccessible; but a religious fair is held every twelfth year at the highest point to which pilgrims can climb. The Hindus regard the cloud which usually rests on the peak as smoke from the kitchen of the goddess Nanda.

Nandair (*Nander*).—Town in the Nizám's Dominions or State of Haidarábád (Hyderábád); situated in lat. 19° 9′ N., and long. 77° 23′ E. (Thornton), on the left or north bank of the Godávari; distant from Haidarábád (Hyderábád) 145 miles north.

Nandákujá.—River in Rájsháhí District, Bengal, an offshoot of the BARAL, which it leaves at Nandákujá factory, and rejoins after a nearly semicircular course (for the last six miles of which it passes through the centre of the Chalan *bíl*). During the dry season, no water escapes from the Nandákujá; its only point of contact with the waters of the *bíl* is at Káchikátá, where it receives them through the Bánganga, and carries them with it on its way to the Brahmaputra. The confluents of the Nandákujá are the Báránai and the Atrái, the waters of the latter being divided between it and the Gur; both rivers are open all the year round, and navigable by boats of from 20 to 24 tons burthen. These streams convey to the northern Districts the miscellaneous commodities of Calcutta, and carry back return cargoes of rice.

Nandan Sar.—Lake in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab; situated with four others on the north side of the Pír Panjál Mountain, close to the pass of the same name. Forms the source of the Haripur river. Place of Hindu pilgrimage. Lat. 33° 37′ N., long. 74° 40′ E.

Nandarthán (or *Nagardhán*).—Decayed town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 21′ N., and long. 79° 21′ E., 4½ miles from Rámtek, just off the old Kámthi (Kamptee) road. Pop. (1870), 2893. Formerly a cavalry station of the Nágpur Rájás. Outside the old castle, an action was fought when the British besieged Nágpur in December 1817. The school is well attended.

Nan-daw.—Small pagoda in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated on a hill about half a mile north of Sandoway town, and said to have been built by Meng Bhra in 763 A.D. (two years later than the neighbouring An-daw), to contain a rib of Gautama. Festivals held here in March, June, and October.

Nandgad.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay; situated 23 miles south of the town of Belgáum, in lat. 15° 34′ N., and long. 74° 37′ E. Pop. (1872), 5748; post office. Close to Nandgad is the fort of Pratápgad, built by the Desái of Kittúr.

Nándgáon. — Feudatory chiefship attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 148,454, of whom 89,828 were Hindus, residing in 538 villages and in 23,098 houses; area, 905 (or, according to the Return of 1877, 884) square miles. The chiefship consists of 4 *parganás*, viz.—Nándgáon and Dongargarh to the south; Pándádá, 20 miles to the north, at the foot of the Sáletekrí Hills, and separated from Nándgáon by the Khairágarh *parganá* and that part of Dongargarh which belongs to the Khairágarh chief; and Mohgáon,

about 50 miles to the north, a very fertile *parganá*, lying between the Dhamdá and Deorbijiá *khálsa parganás;* and Khamariá, belonging to Khairágarh. Of the total area of 884 square miles, 426 are cultivated; and of the portion lying waste, 303 square miles are returned as cultivable. Principal products—rice, wheat, gram, *kodo*, oil seeds, and cotton; principal manufacture—coarse cloth. The original grant was made in 1723 to the family priest of the Rájá of Nágpur, but additions took place in 1765 and 1818. The chief is a Bairágí, or religious devotee; and as he is bound to celibacy, the succession has been maintained by adoption. In 1877, Mahant Ghási Dás, the chief, had a supposed gross revenue of £9874; and paid tribute of £4600. His military force consisted of 7 elephants, 100 horses, 5 camels, and 500 infantry. The Census of 1872 returned 146 children under 12 years of age, and 335 persons above that age (all males), as able to read and write, or under instruction.

Nandi (*Nundy*).—Village in Kolár District, Mysore, at the north-eastern base of the hill fort of NANDIDRUG. Pop. (1871), 1948. Since 1825 it has ceased to be a military station. An ancient temple, dedicated to Bhoga Nandisvara, has some inscriptions in the Grantha character. An annual cattle fair, held at the *Siva-ratri* festival, is attended by 50,000 persons, and lasts for 9 days. The best bullocks bred in the country are brought here for sale, to the number of 10,000. For many years prizes were distributed by Government on this occasion. 'The spirit of competition was most gratifying, and no owners in any part of the world could have been more eager to attract attention than the *rayats* at Nandi.' As much as £100 is sometimes offered for a pair of draught bullocks. Since 1874, the Government Cattle Show has been transferred to Bangalore.

Nandial (*Nandyalampeta*).—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras. Lat. 14° 43′ 30″ N., long. 78° 52′ 15″ E.; pop. (1871), 6645; number of houses, 1123.

Nandiál (from *Nandi*, 'The Bull,' the form in which Siva is worshipped in the Ceded Districts and Mysore).—Town in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras. Lat. 15° 29′ 30″ N., long. 78° 31′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 9378; number of houses, 2035. Nandiál is the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name, and also of a Deputy Collector and other European officers. It contains 9 Sivaite pagodas, and is a prosperous place, surrounded by highly cultivated fields.

Nandidrúg (*Nundydroog*).—Division in the State of Mysore, comprising the three Districts of BANGALORE, KOLAR, and TUMKUR, each of which see separately. Area of Nandidrúg Division, 9097 square miles; pop. (1871), 2,079,547, thus classified—Hindus, 1,958,742; Muhammadans, 99,058; Jains, 2797; Christians, 18,935; 'others,' 15. Revenue, about £407,500. The Division was formed in 1863, by

the addition of Túmkúr to what had been previously known as the Bangalore Division.

Nandidrúg (literally '*The Hill Fort of Nandi*,' the sacred bull of Siva).—Fortified hill in Kolár District, Mysore; 31 miles north of Bangalore, 4810 feet above sea level. Lat. 13° 22′ 17″ N., long. 77° 43′ 38″ E. The summit forms an extensive plateau, in the centre of which is a tank fed by perennial springs. The forest surrounding the mountain, covering an area of 7 square miles, and producing large timber-trees, has been reserved by Government. In the immediate neighbourhood are the sources of many large rivers. The temperature averages 10 degrees lower than on the plain below. The earliest fortifications were erected by the Chik-ballabpur chiefs; but the extensive works whose ruins now crown the summit, were constructed by Haidar Alí and Tipú Sultán. A cliff is still pointed out as Tipú's Drop, from which prisoners are said to have been hurled. Nandidrúg was stormed by the British army under Lord Cornwallis in 1791. The sides are precipitous, except on the west, where the defences had been strengthened by a triple line of ramparts. Battering cannon were moved up the lower slope with extreme difficulty, in the face of a formidable fire from the upper walls. But after a bombardment of 21 days, two breaches were reported practicable. The storming party was headed by General Medows in person, and the assault was delivered by clear moonlight on the morning of the 19th October. An entrance into the inner fort was effected after a sharp struggle, in which 30 soldiers were killed or wounded on the British side, chiefly struck by stones rolled down from above. The entire loss during the siege was 130 men. The salubrity of the spot has led to its becoming a summer resort for the European officials of Bangalore. The large house on the summit was erected by Sir Mark Cubbon, Resident at Mysore in 1834. The chief approach is by a bridle-path from the bottom of the saddle on the south up the western face. There are also two steep footpaths cut in the rock. At the north-east base is the village of NANDI.

Nandikanama.—Pass in Cumbum (Kambham) *táluk*, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras, lying in lat. 15° 23′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 48′ 7″ E. Carries the main road from Karnúl to Kambham (Cumbum) and the east coast at Ongole over the Nallamalái hills; height, about 1800 feet above sea level. Much used for the transport of salt, and was utilized in like manner during the recent famine for carrying grain from the coast to Karnúl.

Nandikotkúr.—Town in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras. Lat. 15° 52′ N., long. 78° 18′ 21″ E.; pop. (1871), 4216; number of houses, 528. Headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name; fort.

Nandod.—Capital of Rájpípla State, Bombay. Lat. 21° 54′ N., long. 73° 34′ E.—*See* RAJPIPLA.

Nandora.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; situated 3 miles north of the Ganges, and 2 from Bihár town. Pop. (1869), 2762, viz. 1522 Hindus and 1240 Musalmáns. Contains the large *bázár* of Lálganj, at which produce to the value of about £30,000 is sold annually.

Nándúra.—Town in Buldána District, Berar, and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Lat. 20° 50′ N., long. 76° 32′ E.; 324 miles from Bombay. The Dayánganga river divides Nándúra Buzurg (Great North) from Nándúra Khurd (Little North). It is said that Nándúra, then only a small village, was resorted to by some dyers about 100 years ago, to escape from the oppression of a *deshmukh* named Fakírchánd; but more probably, when Mahádáji Sindhia plundered the *parganá* of Pimpalgáon Rájá in 1790 A.D., on his way to Poona from the expedition against Ghulám Kádir Beg of Delhi, many refugees settled here. Since the establishment of a railway station, the market has become important; the weekly sales on market days amount to about £2500. Staple commodities — cotton, corn, cattle, and cloth. The Dayánganga supplies water except in the hot season, when it is obtained from wells.

Nandurbár.—Chief town and municipality of the Nandurbár Subdivision of Khandesh District, Bombay; situated 48 miles north-west of Dhuliá, in lat. 21° 23′ 10″ N., and long. 74° 18′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 7205; municipal income, £306. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary. Formerly Nandurbár carried on a considerable trade with Surat, which now finds its way eastward to the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The exports are cotton, linseed, wheat, gram, and grass-oil; imports—salt, cocoa-nuts, and spices of all kinds. The staple industry is the extraction of oil from a grass known as *roya*, about 100 stills being at work. This oil has long been held in repute as a remedy for rheumatism. Nandurbár is one of the oldest towns in Khándesh. It was obtained by Mubárak, chief of Khándesh, from the ruler of Guzerat in 1536. In 1665, it was a place of considerable prosperity, and renowned for its grapes and melons. In 1670, it had become so important a trading centre, that the English factory was removed hither from Ahmedábád. It subsequently suffered in common with the rest of Khándesh during the troubles of Báji Ráo's rule; and when it came into the possession of the British Government in 1818, the town was more than half deserted. It contains many old mosques and remains of ancient buildings.

Nanenwar.—Mountain in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab. Lat. 34° 31′ N., long. 74° 50′ E. (Thornton). One of the lofty range bounding the Kashmír valley on the north-east. Over its sides lies the Bandarpur Pass into Thibet, at an elevation of about 11,000 feet above sea level.

Nangam.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 1¾ square mile. Four chiefs. Estimated revenue in 1875, £200; tribute of £129 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Nangambákam.—Suburb of Madras.—*See* MADRAS CITY.

Nanguneri.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 29′ 20″ N., long. 77° 44′ E.; pop. (1871), 5438; number of houses, 1389. Nanguneri is the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name, and has a richly endowed temple. Weekly fair.

Nanjangúd.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore. Area, 176 square miles, of which 104 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 64,535, of whom 62,869 are Hindus, 1618 Muhammadans, 31 Jains, and 17 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £6171, or 1s. 11d. per cultivated acre.

Nanjangúd (*'Town of the Swallower of Poison,'* so called from one of the attributes of Siva).—Municipal town in Mysore District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 7′ 20″ N., and long. 76° 44′ E., on the right bank of the Kabbani river, 12 miles by road south of Mysore city. Pop. (1871), 4754; municipal revenue (1874-75), £101; rate of taxation, 5d. per head. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Said to be identical with the city of Nagarapura, founded during the 8th century by a king from the north, and shortly afterwards taken by a Chola monarch. Now celebrated for the temple of Siva, under his name of Nanjandeswara. The present building, which has superseded a smaller one of remote antiquity, was erected by Karachúri Nanja Rájá, the prime minister of Mysore about 1740, and embellished by the *díwán* Purnaiya. It is 385 feet long, by 160 feet broad, and supported by 147 columns. Some of the figures are carved with great elaboration and delicacy. The shrine receives an annual allowance from Government of £2020. A car festival, held at the end of March, is attended by thousands of devotees from all parts of Southern India. About a mile from Nanjangúd is a fine bungalow, attached to the Mysore Residency, near which is a stone bridge over the Kabbani, constructed 100 years ago.

Nánjarájpatna.—*Táluk* or Subdivision in the territory of Coorg. Area, 331 square miles; number of villages, 106; number of houses, 4251; pop. (1871), 26,159, of whom 25,392 are Hindus, 626 Muhammadans, 1 Jain, and 140 Christians. Included among the Hindus are 6012 native Coorgs. Nánjarájpatna occupies the north-east of Coorg, and is bounded on the east by the Káveri (Cauvery) river. Teak and sandal-wood are found in the jungles. In the open country towards the Káveri, dry grains, such as *rági*, *aváre*, and *taváre*, are cultivated, and also a little tobacco.

Nánpára.— *Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Bahráich District, Oudh; situated between 27° 39′ and 28° 24′ N. lat., and between 81° 5′ and

81° 52′ E. long. Bounded on the north and east by the State of Nepál, on the south by Bahráich and Hisámpur *tahsíls*, and on the west by Dhaurahra *tahsíl*. Area, 1037 square miles, of which 449 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 238,184, viz. 205,053 Hindus and 33,131 Muhammadans. The most sparsely populated *tahsíl* in the District; average density, 229 persons per square mile. Number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 557. This *tahsíl* comprises the 3 *parganás* of Nánpára, Charda, and Dharmánpur.

Nánpára.—*Parganá* in Bahráich District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nepál, on the east by Charda, on the south by Bahráich, and on the west by Dharmánpur and the Gogra river. Area, 523 square miles; extreme length, 38 miles; breadth, 24 miles. The eastern portion lies high, and forms part of the tableland which acts as the watershed of the two river systems of the Rápti and the Gogra. The western half is a portion of the basin of the latter river and its affluent the Sarju, and has been furrowed in all directions by old beds of these streams in their wanderings over the country. This section is peculiarly fertile, having a rich yet light alluvial soil, which requires no irrigation and but little labour to yield the finest crops. The *parganá* is not so well wooded as its neighbours to the south, only 1·71 per cent. being grove land. The proximity of the jungle tracts, however, in some degree compensates for this drawback. There is an immense proportion of cultivable waste land, which covers 213 square miles, as compared with 257 square miles of cultivation, out of a total area of 523 square miles. Irrigation there is none, except in the higher villages to the east, where, as in Bahráich *parganá*, there is every facility for irrigation, the water lying near the surface. Pop. (1869), 148,572, viz. 124,100 Hindus and 24,472 Musalmáns. Principal crops —barley, rice, and Indian corn. Of the 311 villages comprising the *parganá*, 306 are held under *tálukdárí* tenure. The main road from Bahráich to Nepálganj passes through Nánpára town, and second-class roads run from Nánpára to Motípur (16 miles), to Bhingá (29 miles), and to Khairighát (12 miles). Government vernacular town school at Nánpára, and 8 village schools. Two post offices and two police stations. The nucleus of the present estate of the Rájá of Nánpára, comprising nearly the whole of the *parganá*, consisted of a grant of 5 villages to an Afghán officer named Rasúl Khán, who was commissioned by Sháh Jahán to coerce the Banjáras, a turbulent tribe who had long disturbed the peace of the country. The family gradually extended their possessions; the present Rájá is the seventh in descent from the founder, Rasúl Khán. Nánpára was only constituted a distinct *parganá* after the British annexation of Oudh, having previously been nearly all included in *parganá* Bahráich.

Nánpára.—Town in Bahráich District, Oudh, and headquarters of

Nánpára *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated in lat. 27° 52′ N., and long. 81° 32′ 45″ E., 22 miles north of Bahráich town, on the road to Nepálganj. Tradition states that the town was founded by Nidhái, an oil-seller, whence the name Nidháipurwa, corrupted into Nádpára, and latterly to Nánpára. About 1630, an Afghán officer in the service of Sháh Jahán, having received a grant of this and four other villages, laid the foundation of the present important estate. Pop. (1869), 6818, viz. 3808 Muhammadans and 3010 Hindus. The town has been lately constituted a municipality, with a revenue, in 1876-77, of £242; average incidence of taxation, 8⅜d. per head of population. Considerable traffic in grain, timber, and firewood. A valuable trade with Nepál passes through Nánpára, the imports being returned at about £23,000, and the exports at £20,000 in value. The principal buildings are the Rájá's residence, 5 Hindu temples, 4 mosques, the *tahsíli*, police station, *sarái*, and school.

Nansári.—Small chiefship in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; 9 miles south-east of Kámthá; comprising 8 villages, and occupying an area of 8350 acres, of which more than 5000 are cultivated. The chief is a Bráhman, descended from an official family attached to the late Nágpur Government. A large weekly market for cattle is held at Kapithár, on this estate.

Nanto.—Town in Kotah State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 25° 12′ N., and long. 75° 51′ E., on the route from Kotah town to Bundí (Boondee), 5 miles north-west of the former and 19 south-east of the latter. 'The palace of the late Zalím Sinh, formerly protector of the State of Kotah,' writes Thornton, 'is a fine specimen of a Rájput baronial residence, and has in front a spacious court, surrounded by cloisters, and ornamented with groves of orange-trees and other odoriferous growths, in the midst of which is a beautiful pavilion, with fountains; whence, by means of small canals, water is dispersed to the surrounding verdure.'

Naodwár.—Forest reserve in the north of Darrang District, Assam, lying between the Bhorolí and Bar Dikrái rivers, and bounded north by the Aká Hills. Area, 82 square miles.

Naogáon.—District of Assam.—*See* Nowgong.

Naogáon.—Village in Rájsháhi District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 45′ 30″ N., and long. 88° 58′ 30″ E., on the west bank of the river Jamuná. Important as the centre of the *gánjá* (hemp) cultivation of Rájsháhi; it is from this small tract of country that nearly the whole of India is supplied with the narcotic. Pop. under 5000.

Napaklu.—*Kásbá* or administrative headquarters of Padinalknad *táluk*, in the territory of Coorg. Lat. 12° 19′ N., long. 75° 44′ E. Anglo-vernacular school, with 22 pupils in 1875-76.

Nar.—Town in the Pitlád Subdivision of Baroda State, Bombay. Lat. 22° 28′ N., long. 72° 45′ E.; pop. (1872), 7183.

Nára, Eastern.—A large and important water channel in Sind, having its rise in Baháwalpur State, and running southward successively through the Rohri Deputy-Collectorate, Khairpur State, and the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency. The main source of supply of the Eastern Nára is still undetermined. The first well-defined head occurs at Khári, near the town of Rohri, whence the stream runs almost due south through Khairpur, afterwards entering the Thar and Párkar District, where the channel is in some places broad, and in others scarcely perceptible. At Nawakot, it divides into two channels, the larger proceeding in a south-easterly direction to Wango-jo-got, where it meets the Púran; the other skirting the foot of the Thar, and joining the Púran below Wango Bázár. In the valleys of the Eastern Nára, there are about 400 lakes, and there is good reason for believing that this canal was in former years entirely fed by the Indus. Lieutenant Fife, in his Report of 1852, stated that the stoppage of the stream, which was attributed to a dyke put across the Nára in Upper Sind, had in reality arisen from natural causes, the quantity in some years being excessive, and in others so deficient as to prevent cultivation. Acting upon his advice, Government constructed a supply channel from the Indus near Rohri, and, later on, excavations were made in the bed of the Nára so as to facilitate the flow of the water southwards. Further improvements were effected by erecting a series of embankments on the right side, to arrest the overflow. The principal canals in connection with the Eastern Nára are the Mithrán (123 miles long, inclusive of branches), the Thar (44 miles), and the Dimwá (15 miles). The aggregate cost of these works up to the end of 1873-74 amounted to £274,749; the receipts in the same year were £236,727, and the total charges (exclusive of interest), £66,094. The gross income was thus 84 per cent. on the capital expended, and the net receipts 60 per cent. The area irrigated was 124,793 acres. The cost of the entire works when completed is estimated at £1,063,827, and the net revenue at £66,533.

Nára, Western.—A large and important water channel in Sind, having its rise in the Indus (lat. 27° 29′ N., long. 68° 20′ E.), which it taps close to the boundary line between Lárkána Sub-District and Sukkur (Sakkar), and Shikárpur. After a southerly course through portions of the Lárkána, Rato Dero, and Labdanga *táluks* of Lárkána Deputy-Collectorate, it enters the Nasirábád *táluk* in Mehar, leaving it for Sehwan Sub-District by the Kakar *táluk*. It then passes through Dádú and Sehwan *táluks*, and, after a passage of 138 miles, falls into the northern side of Lake Manchhar. The Western Nára is generally considered to be a natural channel artificially improved, and, being navigable throughout its entire length between May and September, is preferred to the Indus as a boat route during the floods, as the current

is not so strong as in the river. About 17 canals branch directly from the Western Nára, 4 being in Lárkána, and 7 and 6 in Mehar and Sehwan respectively. Floods from this channel occur at times, and in parts prevent the cultivation of rice. The Western Nára is, for purposes of superintendence, included in the Ghár and Karáchi (Kurrachee) Collectorate canals. The revenue realized in 1873-74 was £40,211; the expenditure amounted to £3329.

Nárad.—A name given to three different streams in Rájsháhi District, Bengal. (1) The first is a small offshoot of the Ganges, which it leaves a few miles below the town of Rámpur Beauleah, and thence flows into the Musá Khán near Putiyá. A short distance north of Putiyá, (2) another stream, also called the Nárad, though in no sense a continuation of the former water-course, leaves the Musá Khán, and flows eastward past Nattor. It is navigable a great part of the year. Its chief tributary from the south is (3) the Nárad, a branch of the Nandákujá. The united streams fall eventually into the Atrái just above its junction with the Nandákujá.

Náráinganj (*Náráyanganj*).—Town in Dacca District, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 37′ 15″ N., and long. 90° 32′ 5″ E., on the western bank of the Lakhmiá, at its confluence with the Dhaleswari, and, with its *bázárs*, extending for about 3 miles along the river. The municipality also includes MADANGANJ. Pop. (1872), 10,911; rate of municipal taxation, 9⅞d. per head of population. Náráinganj is distant from Dacca 9 miles by land, and about 16 or 18 by water, and is in reality the port of that city, including Madanganj, a little lower down on the opposite bank of the river. In the neighbourhood are several forts built by Mír Jumlá; and almost opposite stands the Kadam Rasúl, a spot in great repute among the pious Musalmáns in this part of the country.

Náráinganj possesses regular steam communication with Calcutta direct, with the railway station of GOALANDA, with the Assam valley, and with the tea Districts of Sylhet and Cáchár. A considerable trade is also carried on in country boats with Chittagong, and it has been proposed to establish a steamer-service to that port by means of the Meghná. The chief business of Náráinganj is the collection of country produce, especially jute, from the neighbouring Districts; and the distribution of piece-goods, salt, and other European wares. Many English and a few other European firms are engaged in this business, but the bulk of the trade is in the hands of native merchants. In 1876, there were three steam-presses belonging to Europeans, for the preparation of jute in bales. The total value of the trade of Náráinganj, according to the registration returns of 1876-77, amounted to considerably more than two millions sterling; but this figure includes many exports and imports twice over. The exports alone were valued at £957,000, the chief items being—jute, £478,000; rice, £141,000; piece-goods,

£76,000; salt, £67,000; tobacco, £34,000; raw cotton, £31,000. The imports were valued at £1,538,000, including—jute, £478,000 (*i.e.* transit trade); piece-goods, £324,000; salt, £184,000; raw cotton, £122,000; rice, £121,000; sugar, £95,000; oil-seeds, £70,000; tobacco, £66,000. The figures do not include the subsidiary port of Madanganj, which had a business valued at £170,000. The imports of jute are derived in almost equal quantities from the adjoining Districts of Maimansinh and Tipperah, and from Dacca itself. The exports of jute are all sent to Calcutta, either direct by steamer and country boat, or by railway from Goálanda. In 1876-77, out of a total export of 1,600,000 *maunds* of jute, 670,000 were despatched through Goálanda, 570,000 by country boat, and 360,000 direct by steamer. In 1877-78, the total export of jute had risen to 2,137,000 *maunds*, or almost exactly the same quantity as that exported from Sirájganj. The trade with Chittagong chiefly consists of the export of tobacco, food grain, and oil-seeds, and the import of raw cotton, which has been grown in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

Nárájol.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal; situated on the Paláspái, a small stream, in lat. 22° 34′ 8″ N., and long. 87° 39′ 4″ E. Seat of a large manufacture of cotton cloth and mats. Pop. (1872), between 2000 and 3000.

Nárakal.—Town and port in the State of Cochin, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 2′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 12′ E., 3 miles west of Cochin city. Pop. (1871), 4115; number of houses, 897. The place owes its importance to a so-called mud bank, which stretches about 2½ miles seaward, and is 4 miles long. Within this, vessels can run in the worst of the south-west monsoon, when all other ports on the coast are closed. This mud apparently breaks the force of the sea, for the water within is calm when the weather is at its roughest outside. During the famine of 1877, the port was much used in the monsoon season for landing grain, which was then conveyed by backwater to the railway at Tivúr, and so to the distressed Districts. Coasting steamers call here regularly. Nárakal is mentioned as the seat of a considerable Christian population by Fra Paolo Bartolomeo.

Narál.—Subdivision of Jessor District, Bengal, lying between 22° 55° 45″ and 23° 21′ N. lat., and between 89° 25′ and 89° 51′ 30″ E. long. Area, 483 square miles; villages, 623; houses, 42,578; pop. (1872), 299,043, of whom 163,852 were Hindus, 134,514 Muhammadans, 22 Christians, and 655 of other denominations. Number of persons per square mile, 619; villages per square mile, 1·29; houses per square mile, 88; inmates per house, 7; proportion of males, 49·2 per cent. This Subdivision contained, in 1871, 3 revenue and magisterial courts, 3 police stations, and a force of 61 regular police, besides 633 village watchmen; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £2056, 14s.

Narál.—Chief town of Narál Subdivision, Jessor District, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 10′ N., and long. 89° 32′ 30″ E., 22 miles east of Jessor town, on the Chitrá river, which is here very deep, and affords a regular route for large boats throughout the year. Contains the usual Subdivisional offices. Two bi-weekly markets are held, but the trade is entirely local. The Narál family are the first landholders of Jessor District, and have always been noted for their liberality. Several works of public utility have been constructed by them. A good school and charitable dispensary are also maintained at their expense.

Naráoli.—Agricultural town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 29′ N., and long. 78° 45′ E., 5 miles east of the river Sot. Pop. (1872), 5197, consisting of 3084 Hindus and 2113 Musalmáns.

Narasinganallúr.—Thriving village in Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated in lat. 8° 42′ N., and long. 77° 42′ E., 3½ miles west of Tinnevelli. Pop. (1871), 6795; number of houses, 1713.

Narasinha-angadi.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras.—*See* JAMALABAD.

Náráyanavanam.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 13° 27′ N., long. 79° 38′ E.; pop. (1871), 6894; number of houses, 631. A sub-magistrate's station, with large *bázár.*

Náráyanganj.—Town in Dacca District, Bengal.—*See* NARAINGANJ.

Narbadá (*Nerbudda*).—Division of the Central Provinces, comprising the five Districts of BETUL, CHHINDWARA, HOSHANGABAD (with the Feudatory State of MAKRAI), NARSINHPUR, and NIMAR. Pop. (1872), 1,604,555; area, 17,727 square miles.

Narbadá (*Narmadá*—the *Namadus* of Ptolemy, *Namnadius* of the *Periplus*).—One of the great rivers of India, traditionally regarded as the boundary between Hindustán Proper and the Deccan. It rises (lat. 22° 41′ N., long. 81° 49′ E.) in the dominions of the Rájá of Rewah, and, after a westward course of 800 miles, falls into the sea (lat. 21° 38′ N., long. 72° 30′ E.) below Broach in the Bombay District of that name. Its source is at Amarkantak, a massive flat-topped hill, forming the eastern terminus of that long range which runs across the middle of India from west to east. All round lies a wild and desolate country; but a little colony of priests have reared their temples in the middle of these mighty solitudes, to guard the sources of the sacred river. The Narbadá bubbles up gently in a small tank in one of the undulating glades on the summit of the mountain. Then for about 3 miles it meanders through green meadows, receiving the waters of countless springs, till it reaches the edge of the Amarkantak plateau, where it falls over the black basaltic cliff in a glistening cascade of 70 feet, called Kapila-Dhára. A little farther on is a smaller fall, known as Dúdh-dhára, or the Stream of Milk; the myth being that here the river once

ran with milk instead of water. After descending some hundreds of feet by falls and rapids from the heights of Amarkantak, it enters the Central Provinces, and winds round the hills of Mandla, till it flows under the walls of the ruined palace of Rámnagar. At this point, the Narbadá has run a course of nearly a hundred miles, and received the drainage of an extensive hill country. Its swollen waters flow in several channels, between which rise wooded islands; while in mid-stream, peaks and ledges of black trap-rock protrude in all directions. The banks are clothed with thick foliage to the water's edge, and on every side hills shut in the horizon. But below Rámnagar for several miles, down to Mandla, the river flows in an unbroken expanse of blue water between banks adorned with lofty trees. Of all the pools or reaches (*dohs*) in the rivers of the Central Provinces, this is the loveliest. Below Mandla, at Gwárighát, where the Trunk Road crosses from Jabalpur to Nágpur, the river wears the look of industry; for at this point are collected many hundred logs of timber cut in the forests, to be floated down the stream to the marts of Jabalpur. About 9 miles to the south-west of Jabalpur, the Narbadá flings itself tumultuously over a ledge, with a fall of 30 feet, called Dhuán-dhára, or the Misty Shoot; and then enters on a narrow channel, cut through a mass of marble and basalt for nearly 2 miles, and known as the 'Marble Rocks.' The river, which above this point had a breadth of 100 yards, is here compressed within 20 yards, and flows in a swirling stream between marble bluffs from 50 to 80 feet high, till, escaping from its glittering prison, it spreads out once more in a broad expanse.

The Narbadá now leaves the hill country behind, and enters upon the fertile valley, over 200 miles long, which includes Narsinhpur and the greater part of Hoshangábád District. This is the first of those wide alluvial basins, which, alternating with rocky gorges, give so varied a character to the river's course. Probably they were originally lakes, more or less closely connected, and fed by a slowly flowing river, down which clayey sediment was carried, and gradually and uniformly distributed over a considerable extent of country. On the conglomerate and clay thus deposited, lie 20 feet of the rich alluvium, known as the *regar* or black cotton-soil of Central India. Passing under a great railway viaduct, with massive piers, the Narbadá flows along this valley, which is shut in between the parallel ranges of the Vindhyá and Sátpura Mountains. During the rainy season, the river affords the means of a brief and precarious traffic. At Birmán Ghát, after the rains, the receding waters leave a broad space of sand, where, every November, is held one of the largest fairs in the Central Provinces. The Narbadá now flows past the coal-pits of Mohpání and the iron-mines of Tendúkherá, past cotton fields and plains clothed twice a year with waving harvests, past Hoshangábád, and the once famous towns of Handiá and Nemáwar,

past Jogígarh, where it rushes with clear rapids right beneath the battlemented walls and bastions, till it once more enters the jungle in the District of Nimár. Emerging from these wilds, it flows in a deep and violent stream past the sacred island of MANDHATA, crowded with Sivaite temples, and steep with cliffs, from which devotees were wont to dash themselves on to the rocks in the river below. During its passage through the Central Provinces, several falls interrupt its course. At Umariá, in Narsinhpur District, is a fall of about 10 feet; at Mandhár, 25 miles below Handiá, a fall of 40 feet; and at Dádrí, near Punása, another fall of 40 feet. The Narbadá is fed principally from the south side, as the drainage of the Vindhyán tableland which bounds the valley on the north is almost entirely northwards. Its principal affluents are the Makrár, Chakrár, Kharmer, Burhner, and Banjar, then the Tímar, the Soner, Sher, and Shakar, the Dúdhí, Korámí, Machná, Tawá, Ganjál, and Ajnál. On the north bank, the Narbadá receives, among others, the mountain streams Baláí, Gaur, and Hiran.

At Makrái, the Narbadá finally leaves the tableland of Málwá to enter upon the broad plain of Guzerat. For the first 30 miles it separates the territory of Baroda, on the right, from the State of Rájpípla, on the left; and then, for the remaining 70 miles of its course, including many windings, it intersects the fertile District of Broach. Its average breadth here varies from about half a mile to a mile. Below Broach city it gradually widens into an estuary, whose shores are 13 miles apart where they fall away into the Gulf of Cambay. The influence of the tide is felt as far up as Ráyanpur, about 25 miles above Broach. At the mouth of the estuary, spring tides sometimes rise to the height of 30 feet. In Broach District, the Narbadá has cut for itself a deep and permanent bed through the hard alluvial soil. The right or north bank is generally high and precipitous, but is gradually being eaten away by the present set of the current. The left bank is low and shelving. The fair-weather level of the river is about 21 feet below the surface of the plain, and even the highest floods do but little damage to the surrounding country. In this part of its course the Narbadá receives three tributaries—the Káveri (Cauvery) and Amrávati on the left, and the Bukhi on the right. Opposite the mouth of the Bukhi lies a large uninhabited island, called the Alia Bet. This has undergone many changes of late years, and now has an area of about 22,000 acres, overgrown with dense jungle. The total length of the Narbadá, from its source to the sea, is 801 miles; and the total area of its drainage basin is estimated at 36,400 square miles. Its maximum flood discharge has been calculated at 2,500,000 cubic feet of water per second. The velocity of the current in the dry season at Broach city is less than one mile an hour.

Throughout its entire course the Narbadá drains rather than waters

the country through which it flows. It is therefore nowhere utilized for irrigation. Navigation is confined to the lowest section, which lies within Guzerat. In the height of the rainy season of 1847, a British officer succeeded in making his way down stream from Mandlesar, in the territory of Indor; but the perils through which he passed are so great as to close the route to commerce. The highest point to which navigation ordinarily extends is about 15 miles above the Makrái Falls. In the rainy season—from July to September—boats of considerable tonnage are able to sail up as far as Talakwára, about 65 miles above Broach city, assisted by the regular south-west monsoon. Sea-going ships of about 70 tons frequent the port of Broach; but they are entirely dependent upon the tide, as they cannot come up in the monsoon, and during the dry season there is no depth of fresh water. Though the foreign trade of Broach has greatly fallen off from what it was in early days, this decline does not seem to be due to unfavourable changes in the channel of the river. The author of the *Periplus* (1st century A.D.) dwells upon the difficulty of getting up to Barugaza (Broach), even by the help of skilful pilots, and moving only with the tide. Fryer (1680) tells a very similar story; and Heber (1825) says that no vessels larger than moderately sized lighters could cross the bar.

According to local legend, the goddess of the Narbadá will never suffer her stream to be crossed by a bridge. The Bombay and Baroda Railway Company have scarcely yet succeeded in proving the falsehood of this legend. Their first bridge, near the city of Broach, begun in 1860, was seriously damaged by a flood in 1864. The repairs then required suffered from another flood in 1868; but by 1871, the bridge again stood complete, after a total expenditure of £470,000. The unprecedented flood of 1876, which rose to a height of 35 feet above high-water mark, washed away 26 spans, or 1600 feet out of a total length of 4250 feet. The traffic is now (1878) being carried on a temporary structure; while a new bridge has been commenced about 100 yards farther up-stream, at an estimated cost of £375,000. Altogether, the bridging of the Narbadá cannot have cost much less than a million sterling.

In religious sanctity, the Narbadá ranks only second to the Ganges among the rivers of India. According to the *Rewá Purána* (Rewá being another name for the river), the sanctity of the Ganges will cease in the Samvat year 1951 (1895 A.D.), while the purifying virtue of the Narbadá will continue the same throughout all the ages of the world. So holy is the water, that the very pebbles in its bed are worn into the shape of the emblem of Siva. Few Hindus would dare to forswear themselves, standing in the Narbadá with a garland of red flowers round the neck and some water in the right hand. The most meritorious act that a pilgrim can perform, is to walk from the sea up to the

source at Amarkantak, and then back along the opposite bank. This pilgrimage, called *parikrám* or *pradakshana*, is chiefly undertaken by devotees from Guzerat and the Deccan, and takes from one year to two years in accomplishment. In Broach District, the most sacred spots are—Sukaltirth, with its ancient banian tree; the site near Broach city where Rájá Bálí performed the ten-horse sacrifice; and the temples at Karod and Bhádbat.

Narbah.—Town and fort in Sirhind, Punjab, and residence of a Rájá, whose possessions, once consisting of 313 villages, with a population of 80,000, now only occupy an area of 40 miles in length from north-east to south-west, and 17 in breadth; lying between 30° 17′ and 30° 41′ N. lat., and between 75° 51′ and 76° 21′ E. long. (Thornton). The Rájá was deprived of one-fourth of his territory for non-performance of feudatory obligations. Narbah town is in lat. 30° 23′ N., and long. 76° 15′ E.

Naregal.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay; situated 55 miles east of Dhárwár town, in lat. 15° 36′ N., and long. 75° 54′ E. Pop. (1872), 5182.

Nargúnd.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay; situated 60 miles east of Belgáum, and 32 miles north-east of Dhárwár town, in lat. 15° 43′ 22″ N., and long. 75° 25′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 9931. Nargúnd is a municipal town, with an income of £395. Though not a manufacturing town, it is a busy entrepôt of trade, where the merchants of Dhárwár and North Kanara exchange rice, sugar, spices, and other agricultural products. Nargúnd was one of the earliest possessions wrested from the feeble grasp of the Muhammadan kings of Bijápur by the Marhattá rulers of Satára. It was subsequently handed over to Rámráo Bháne, with some surrounding villages. On the conquest of the Peshwá's territory by the British, it was restored by them to Dádájí Ráo, the chief then found in possession. An agreement was concluded with him, by which he was exempted from the payment of his former tribute of £347, from *nazarána* or presents on occasions, and from rendering service, on the conditions of loyalty to and dependence on the British Government. This petty principality, containing 30 towns and villages, with a population of about 24,000, was at the time of the Mutiny in 1857 held by Bháskar Ráo Apá Sáhib. Affected by the disturbances in the north, the chief rose in open rebellion, and murdered Mr. Manson, the Commissioner and Political Agent, Southern Marhattá country. An English force was despatched at once to Nargúnd, and, after a short but decisive engagement, the fort and town of Nargúnd fell into the hands of the English.

Narhi.—Agricultural town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 5527. Lies in lat. 25° 42′ 15″ N., and long. 84° 4′ 15″ E., 2 miles north of the Ganges, and 30 miles east of Gházípur town.

Nári. — Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces. — *See* NERI.

Nariád.—Chief town of the Nariád Subdivision of Káira District, Bombay, and a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway; situated 29 miles south-east of Ahmedábád. Lat. 22° 40′ 45″ N., long. 72° 55′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 24,551. Nariád is a municipality; average income, £1266. Small cause court, sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary, and is the headquarters station of the chief revenue and police officers of the Subdivision. The town is also the centre of the extensive tobacco trade of Káira District.

Nárikelbáriá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the Chitrá river, 6 miles from Bághapára. One of the seats of the Jessor sugar trade.

Narishá.—Town in Dacca District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 33′ 45″ N., ong. 90° 10′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 5645.

Narkher.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; 52 miles from Nágpur city, on the Betúl road. Pop. (1872), 7159, chiefly agricultural. Narkher has a good market-place, school, and police buildings, and the river is embanked with masonry. The place is surrounded by beautiful groves, but is thought unhealthy.

Narmadá.—One of the great rivers of India.—*See* NARBADA.

Narnála.—Hill fortress in Ellichpur District, Berar. Lat. 21° 14′ 30″ N., long. 77° 4′ 20″ E. It is the highest point in the District, standing 3161 feet above sea level, and forms, as it were, an advanced outwork, about 2 miles south of the main wall of the Gawilgarh range. A central fort occupies all the upper plateau of the hill, while two smaller forts (Teliágarh and Jáfarábád) enclose two considerable spurs running out at opposite angles on a lower level, and in the direction of the length of the hill, which is from north-east to south-west. The ramparts, which extend over a distance of several miles, consist generally of a wall from 25 to 40 feet high, with 67 flanking towers. There are six large and twenty-one small gates. Four only of the nineteen tanks within the walls hold water throughout the year. The fort also contains four very curious stone cisterns, covered in by a masonry platform pierced by small apertures. On this platform are the remains of arches. The water in the cisterns is remarkably sweet and cool. They are supposed to have been built by the Jains who ruled the country before the Musalmán conquest, for many Jains drink no water on which the sun has fallen. The old palace, a mosque called after Aurangzeb, an armoury, a twelve-doored pavilion, a music hall, and other buildings, all more or less in ruins, occupy the interior of the central fort. Perhaps the most beautiful architectural feature is the Shahnúr gate on the south, which is of white sandstone, with projecting balconies on either side; the open stone lattice-work, the rich cornice,

and tracery and panelling, with stone-cut verses from the Korán, are admirable specimens of Pathán workmanship.

Narora.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 12′ N., long. 78° 25′ 45″ E.

Narot.—Municipal town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab; situated in the trans-Rávi tract, in lat. 32° 17′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 30′ E., half-way between the Rávi and the hills. Pop. (1868), 5858, consisting of 3337 Hindus, 2485 Muhammadans, and 36 'others.' Principal mart in the fertile submontane belt known as Chak Andar. Exports of rice and turmeric to Amritsar (Umritsur) and Lahore. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £159, or 9⅓d. per head of population (3944) within municipal limits.

Nárowál.—Municipal town in Siálkot District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 6′ N., long. 74° 55′ E.; pop. (1868), 3728. Distant from Siálkot town 35 miles south-east. Formerly headquarters of a *tahsíl*, now removed to Riah. Post office, Government school. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £175, or 8d. per head of population (5300) within municipal limits.

Narrakal.—Town in Cochin, Madras.—*See* NARAKAL.

Narri.—Salt-mine in Kohát District, Punjab; one of the series extending along either bank of the Teri Toi river. Lat. 33° 11′ 15″ N., long. 71° 12′ 30″ E.; lies on the southern side of the range of salt-bearing hills north of the river, 31 miles west-south-west of Malgin mine, and 34½ miles south-south-west from Kohát town. The quarries of pure rock-salt extend over an area 2 miles long by half a mile broad. The mineral is excavated by blasting. Only camels are permitted to load; and the mine is resorted to by Afrídís, Khataks, Bangashes, Mohmands, and Swátis. Preventive establishment of 13 men. Formerly a Government military outpost, held by a detachment from the Kohát garrison, but now abandoned. Annual salt revenue, £1044.

Narsapur (*Nursapore*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras; situated in lat. 16° 26′ 20″ N., and long. 81° 44′ 30″ E., at the mouth of the Vasishta Godávari. Pop. (1871), 6819; number of houses, 1495. Once a flourishing port, but now nearly cut off from the sea by the extension of the Godávari delta. Until recently, Narsapur was the headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name, and contained the courts of a Sub-Magistrate and District *munsif*, and several Government offices. There is a mission establishment and a fine market-place. The Dutch established themselves here in 1665, and had an iron foundry. The English occupied the north suburb, *Mádhavapaláyam* (whence the trade name *madapollam*), in 1677, and maintained their factory there for 150 years. There is still a good boat-building business, and a trade (in country bottoms) with Burma of about £10,000 annually; but this is languishing, and the population is on the decrease.

Narsinha.—Dome-shaped rock in Seoní District, Central Provinces, rising 100 feet out of the Wainganga valley. The temple on the top,

sacred to Narsinha, an incarnation of Vishnu, contains an image of the god. A village of the same name lies below the hill.

Narsinhgarh.—Native State in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Area, about 720 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 87,000; revenue, £40,000. Parása Rám, the founder of the Narsinhgarh State, succeeded his father Ajab Sinh in 1660 A.D. as minister to the Ráwat of Rájghar. In 1681 A.D., he compelled the Ráwat to divide his territory with him, and Narsinhgarh thus became a separate chiefship. The State pays £8500 as tribute to Holkar, under the mediation of the British Government. The chief receives a *tankha* (or pecuniary allowance in lieu of rights over land) of Halí Rs. 1200 (say £120) from Sindhia, and another of Rs. 5100 (say £510) from the State of Dewás. These sums are received and paid through the British Political Agent. The present chief, Rájá Patál Sinh, an Umat Rájput, was born about 1850. The title of Rájá was conferred on him and his heirs by the British Government in 1872; he is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. A military force is maintained of 9 guns, 24 artillerymen, 98 cavalry, and 326 infantry.

Narsinhgarh.—Chief town of Narsinhgarh State, Bhopál Agency, Central India. Lat. 23° 42′ 30″ N., long. 77° 5′ 50″ E.

Narsinhgarh.—Ancient town in Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 59′ N., and long. 79° 26′ E., 12 miles north-west of Damoh town by the river Sunár, and on the route from Ságar to Rewah. The Muhammadans, who built the fort and mosque, called it Nasratgarh, and the Marhattás gave the present name. The latter erected a second fort, which the British troops partially destroyed in 1857. The town has a police station-house.

Narsinhpur.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 45′ and 23° 15′ N. lat., and between 78° 38′ and 79° 38′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the State of Bhopál, with Ságar (Saugor), Damoh, and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) Districts; on the east by Seoní; on the south by Chhindwára; and on the west by the river Dúdhí, which separates it from the District of Hoshangábád. Population in 1872, 339,395; area, 1916 square miles. The administrative headquarters are at the town of NARSINHPUR.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Narsinhpur forms the upper half of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley proper. The first of those wide alluvial basins which, alternating with rocky gorges, give so varied a character to the river's course, opens out just below the famous Marble Rocks at Bherághát, 15 miles east of the District boundary, and extends westward for 225 miles, including the whole of Narsinhpur together with the greater part of Hoshangábád. Probably these basins were originally lakes, more or less intimately connected and fed by a slowly flowing river, down which clayey sediment was carried, and gradually and

uniformly distributed over a considerable expanse of country. On the conglomerate and clay thus deposited, lie 20 feet of the rich alluvium known as the *regar* or black cotton-soil of Central India. As originally constituted, Narsinhpur was confined to that part of the valley which is defined by three rivers—the Narbadá on the north, the Soner on the east, and the Dúdhí on the west; while the Sátpura heights shut it in on the south. But since its formation, the District has been enlarged by the addition of two isolated tracts across the Narbadá. Of these, the easternmost is an insignificant patch of hill and ravine; that to the west is a small but fertile valley, enclosed by the river in a crescent-shaped bend of the Vindhyán range. To speak of the Vindhyás, however, as a range of hills, is incorrect. Seen from the south, they present an almost uninterrupted series of headlands with projecting promontories and receding bays, like a weather-beaten coast-line; but these form the abrupt termination of a tableland stretching away to the north in gentle undulations, and are not an independent range of hills. They afford a fine example of cliffs, once formed by the denuding action of shore-waves, but now far inland. Ripple-marking, almost totally absent in the other sandstone groups of Central India, is found almost everywhere throughout the Vindhyán series in extraordinary perfection. Twice in Narsinhpur the Vindhyán headlands abut on the river bed, and twice open out into the bay-like curves which constitute the trans-Narbadá portions of the District. The face of the Sátpura range overlooking the valley from the south is generally regular, rising nowhere more than 500 feet above the plain. The hills run in a line almost parallel to the river, at a distance from it of 15 or 20 miles; and the intervening space forms the greater part of the District. Along the valley the rich level is seldom broken, except by occasional mounds of gravel or *kankar* (nodular limestone), which offer serviceable village sites. Any inequalities of surface are generally turned to account for the construction of tanks and reservoirs, often adorned by the graceful domed temples, which take the place of the needle-shaped spires common in the Hindu shrines of Upper India. Nearly every village is embellished by its deep mango groves, and old *pípal* and tamarind trees; and indeed the commonest village names are those derived from trees. Thus such names as Píparia (the *pípal* village), Imalía (the tamarind village), and Umaría (the wild fig village) abound throughout the District. After the rains, the black soil softens into a stiff bog; but in the winter months, the valley presents the appearance of a broad strip of land, walled in on either side by low hill ranges, and green from end to end with young wheat. As soon as the limits of the black soil are passed, the country changes. Below either range of hills, but more especially on the Sátpura side, are broad belts of red gravelly soil, which merge through woody borders into the lower slopes of the

highlands. In these tracts, the wheat of the valley gives way to rice, sugar-cane, and the poorer rain-crops; the village roofs are of thatch instead of tile; forest trees take the place of mango groves, and reservoirs are replaced by mountain streams. But though less productive, the country has become more picturesque, with its river gorges, and its open glades, covered with short sward, and dotted with old *mahuá* trees.

The hill country of the District is insignificant in extent, being nearly confined to the smaller of the tracts north of the Narbadá. Nor are the forests of importance. Probably no District in the Central Provinces is so devoid of extensive wastes, and such as exist are too accessible for jungle produce to be abundant. Narsinhpur presents few attractions to the sportsman. The jungles are ill stocked with large game, and remarkable for the scarcity of their birds.

The Narbadá is fed almost entirely from the south. Its principal affluents are the Sher and the Shakar, the latter of which was once known by the name of *Súar* or pig, till a Muhammadan of rank took pity on the stream, and, emptying into it a cart-load of sugar, gained for it a more honourable appellation. The fall from east to west is so gradual that, except when in flood, the Narbadá creeps slowly along its narrow bed of basalt, with precipitous banks on each side; but the Sher and Shakar are mountain torrents throughout. With their tributaries, the Máchá-Rewá and Chitá-Rewá, they rise in the Sátpuras, and pour through rocky channels, fringed on either hand with a series of ravines. Here and there, however, their beds open out into small oases of rich alluvial deposit, which are cultivated like gardens with the finer kinds of sugar-cane and vegetables. The Sonar resembles these streams; but the Dúdhí and Bárú-Rewá flow along sandy channels, utilized only for an occasional melon bed. All these rivers, including the Narbadá itself, rise with extraordinary rapidity in time of flood; and even the little Singhrí has more than once inundated the town of Kandelí, and caused serious loss of life and property.

History.—The history of Narsinhpur is the history of an outlying District. The great Sangrám Sáh, the forty-eighth Rájá of the Garhá-Mandla line (*see* MANDLA), extended his dominion over Narsinhpur and the surrounding country, and built the fortress of Chaurágarh. Situated on the crest of the outer range of the Sátpura tableland, embracing within its circle two hills, and supplied by numerous tanks and wells, this stronghold is less a fort than a huge fortified camp; and it has been the theatre of most of the historic scenes enacted in Narsinhpur. After the defeat and heroic death of Durgávatí in 1564, Asaf Khán stormed Chaurágarh, and seized the enormous booty of 100 jars of gold coin and 1000 elephants. Probably this expedition first opened out the valley to the foreign immigration which has reclaimed

it from barbarism. In 1593, when the Bundela invasion under Jújhár Sinh took place, Prem Náráyan sustained a siege of some months in Chaurágarh; and it was not till he had been treacherously assassinated that the fortress fell. At Chaurágarh, also, Narhar Sáh, the last of the Garhá-Mandla line, took refuge when pressed by Moráji, the Marhattá Governor of Ságar (Saugor). The Gond prince was betrayed, and ended his days in imprisonment at Kurái, while his dominions fell into the hands of his conquerors in 1781. Their administration lasted for seventeen years, and is only remarkable as having caused a considerable influx of Hindu immigrants from the north. The Ságar Governors were in their turn expelled by the powerful Bhonslá Rájás. Before occupying Narsinhpur, the Nágpur army overran Hoshangábád; and that District, left utterly defenceless, was periodically plundered by the Pindárís and the Nawáb of Bhopál until 1802. The distress thus occasioned resulted, in 1803 and 1804, in actual famine, and forced a number of people into the more secure and prosperous District of Narsinhpur. In the years 1807 to 1810, similar accessions were received from Bhopál, which had been ravaged by Amír Khán and his Pindárís. Thus recruited, Narsinhpur attained a degree of prosperity which it had never known before. Unfortunately, this happy period proved transient. In 1807, Narsinhpur and Hoshangábád Districts were made over to Nawáb Sadík Alí Khán, for the partial support of the frontier force. Soon afterwards, the remittances promised him from Nágpur began to fail; while the campaigns he waged against Amír Khán involved him in further financial difficulties, which gave rise to increased taxation, speedily followed by all kinds of irregular extortion. When main force failed, *pátels*, or village head-men, were tempted by titles and dresses of honour to bid against each other; while, to meet the case of merchants and others unconnected with land, courts of justice were created, whose whole staff consisted of a guard of soldiers and a few ready witnesses. The only crime of which they took cognizance was adultery, and they threw on the wealthy defendant the burden of establishing his innocence.

British rule in Narsinhpur dates from 1818. In November of the preceding year, on the first intelligence of the treachery of Apá Sáhib, Brigadier-General Hardyman was directed by Lord Hastings to advance his force from the frontier of Rewah in the direction of Nágpur. On hearing of the success at Sítábaldí on the 16th December, he resolved to take up a position near Gádarwára, to cut off the fugitives from Nágpur. Reinforcements were accordingly sent to a detachment already stationed at Gádarwára under Lieutenant-Colonel Macmorine, who was thus enabled to attack and defeat the Srínagar garrison, consisting of 3000 foot and 4000 horse. Chaurágarh, however, still held out, and was only evacuated on the approach of the left division

of the army under Brigadier-General Watson. The country was then in an exhausted condition; and the recent disorders had nearly ruined all except the predatory castes. Of the three principal Pindárí leaders of the 'Sindhia Sháhí,' two—Chitú, a chief who led 5000 horsemen, and Karím Khán, who commanded more than 1000—formerly held possessions in the District. Even in Captain Sleeman's time a gang of Thugs or Stranglers lived within 400 yards of his court-house; and the groves of Mandesar, only 12 miles from Narsinhpur, formed one of the greatest *bels* or places of slaughter in all India. These facts, however, only came to light in 1831. In dealing with the District, Sleeman was strengthened by the wise liberality of Mr. Molony, the chief civil authority of the Province; and each successive settlement of the land revenue lightened the burdens of the agricultural class, till in 1835 they were in a position to reap the full benefits of the first long term settlement, which was made on terms of great liberality. Secure at once from foreign raids and domestic exactions, the people have grown rich; and the western part of the District, though the most recently developed, may bear comparison with most similar tracts in India.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Narsinhpur at 336,796 persons. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 339,395. The latest estimate of 1877 indicates a total of 356,708. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 339,395 persons on an area of 1916 square miles, residing in 979 villages or townships and in 64,888 houses; persons per square mile, 177·14; villages per square mile, 0·51; houses per square mile, 33·87; persons per village, 346·68; persons per house, 5·23. Thus Narsinhpur is at once the smallest and the most densely populated District in the Central Provinces. Classified according to sex—males, 176,552; females, 162,843. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 66,297; the female children, 59,523. Ethnical division in 1877—Europeans, 30; Eurasians, 9; aboriginal tribes, 45,542; Hindus, 297,543; Muhammadans, 12,569; Buddhists and Jains, 906. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds, 42,143 (in 1872), the remainder consisting of Bharias, Kols, etc. Among the Hindus, in 1872 the Bráhmans numbered 23,949; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Lodhís, 31,400; Dhers or Mhars, 22,742; Chamárs, 16,242; Dhimárs, 14,507; and a great variety of other cultivating and inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 35. Owing to their isolation, the residents of the valley have assumed in dress and appearance a distinct type from that of the picturesque races of Upper India. Though generally well grown, few are conspicuous for stature or physical appearance; nor does their costume become them. Among men, the favourite colour of the *angarkhá* or long coat

is yellow, with a green shade from the *mahuá* dye. The sleeves are turned back on the wrists, and the waist-cloth is worn on or below the hips. This, with a white turban, constitutes the usual dress of a prosperous peasant. The chiefs affect the Marhattá turban, tied so much on one side as almost to cover one eye, or, what appears to be the Gond fashion, a turban composed of innumerable folds of cloth twisted like a rope. Their dress seldom matches their pretensions, and some of the oldest Rájás and Thákurs might be taken for poor peasants. It is true that titles of honour are so common as to have lost much of their significance. There is in Narsinhpur neither the strictness of ritual nor the social rigidity which prevail in Hindustán Proper. Among Bráhmans, the Kanaujiás still maintain their traditions; but the Sanoriás, who take a high rank in Upper India, in Narsinhpur are very lax, forming connections with women of other castes, and neglecting the niceties of Hindu ritual.

Division into Town and Country.—There were, in 1872, only 2 towns in Narsinhpur District with a population exceeding 5000—NARSINHPUR, the District capital (population, 12,111), and GADARWARA (6068). Townships of 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 56; from 200 to 1000, 435; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 486. The only municipalities are—Narsinhpur with Kandelí (population within municipal limits, 12,854)—total income in 1876-77, £989, of which £697 was derived from taxation, being 1s. per head; total expenditure, £884: Gádarwára (population, 6438)—total income, £1301, of which £1205 was derived from taxation, being 3s. 8d. per head; total expenditure, £952: Kauriá (population, 3358)—total income, £46, entirely derived from taxation, being 3½d. per head; total expenditure, £53: and Tendúkherá (population, 3217)—total income, £42, of which £40 was derived from taxation, being 3d. per head; total expenditure, £44.

Agriculture.—Out of the total area of 1916 square miles, 963 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 243 square miles are returned as cultivable; 6892 acres are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 1s. 4d. per acre of the cultivated land, and 1s. 1d. on the cultivable land. Wheat forms the staple crop of the District, occupying (in 1876) 286,000 acres; 278,683 acres were devoted to other food grains, while sugar-cane was grown on 2384, and cotton on 54,926 acres. Most of the cotton is produced, not on the so-called black cotton-soil, but on the light undulating lands near the banks of rivers and *nálás*. The out-turn of wheat from average land is about 480 lbs. per acre; of inferior grain, 400 lbs.; of sugar (*gúr*), 560 lbs.; of cotton, 52 lbs. Rotation of crops is not practised; but when the soil shows signs of exhaustion, gram or some other pulse is substituted for wheat for two or three years. Cultivators dare not leave their lands fallow, even for a single year; for the ground would

be immediately occupied by rank *káns* grass, which no exertions can eradicate till it has run its course of about ten years. Irrigation and manure are used only for sugar-cane and vegetables. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 2463 proprietors, of whom 1891 were classified as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 34,597, of whom 20,674 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 13,923 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat, 4s. 9d.; for inferior grain, 1s. 3d.; for sugar-cane, 2s. 11d.; for cotton, 3s.; for oil-seeds, 3s. 3d. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. in 1876 were as follows:—Wheat, 5s. 7d.; linseed, 8s. 2d.; raw sugar (*gúr*), 24s. 6d.; cotton, 38s. 2d.; and *sambhar* salt, 13s. 8d. The wages per diem of a skilled labourer averaged 1s.; of an unskilled labourer, 3d.

Commerce and Trade.—Narsinhpur and Gádarwára are the only trading towns of the District. A considerable traffic, however, chiefly in English cloth, lac ornaments, and copper utensils, takes place at an extensive fair, which is held yearly in November and December on the sands of the Narbadá at Birmán Ghát, 14 miles from Narsinhpur. Hitherto, the only export of consequence has been cotton. The manufactures consist of brass and bell-metal vessels at Chichlí; a kind of stamped cotton fabric at Gádarwára; and *tasar* silk and saddle-cloths at Narsinhpur. The mineral resources of the District give rise to an important industry among the Gond inhabitants. At Mohpáni, 11 miles from the Gádarwára railway station, excavations for coal have been made with success in the gorge by which the Chítá-Rewá leaves the Sátpura tableland. The method of subterranean work pursued is that known by the name of 'pillar and stall;' and the coal produced is a strong non-coking coal, fairly effective as a steam fuel. A small vein in Sihorá Ghát, on the Sher river, also supplies coal, said to be hard and jetty, and free from pyrites of iron. The most valuable iron-pits are on the north of the Narbadá at Tendúkherá, and produce ore of excellent quality. From the exclusive employment of charcoal in smelting, the town is free from smoke, and only the ceaseless clink of hammers distinguishes it from the agricultural villages of the valley. All these mines are leased by the Narbadá Coal and Iron Company. Besides the high-road from Jabalpur towards Bombay, which runs through the District from east to west, the chief lines of communication are the route northwards across the Narbadá and through an opening in the hills towards Ságar; the road southwards by Srínagar towards Seoní; and the road by Haraí to Chhindwára. None of these roads has yet been metalled, and they are only partially bridged, so that they become impracticable during the rainy season. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway passes through the District from east to west for a total length of 70 miles, with stations at Chhindwára, Korakbel, Nar-

sinhpur, Karelí, Sihorá, Mandesar, and Gádarwára. During the rains, the Narbadá, Dúdí Shakar, and Sher afford means of transit by water for 224 miles.

Administration.—In 1861, Narsinhpur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1876-77, £54,584, of which the land revenue yielded £42,269. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £13,362. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 7; magistrates, 11. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 32 miles; average distance, 10 miles. Number of police, 369, costing £5473, being 1 policeman to about every 5 square miles and to every 912 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 111, of whom 8 were females. The total cost of the jail was £626. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection in 1876 was 86, attended by 4482 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—In 1876, the average temperature in the shade was returned from observations taken at the civil station of Narsinhpur as follows:—May, highest reading 111° F., lowest 92°; July, highest 86°, lowest 74°; December, highest 78°, lowest 52°. The total rainfall in the same year amounted to 41·31 inches, all of which fell between June and September; the average rainfall being 54·72 inches. The prevailing diseases of the District are malarious fevers and bowel complaints; but cholera and small-pox occasionally prove fatal to large numbers. In 1876, two charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 9941 in-door and out-door patients. Vital statistics showed in the same year a death-rate of 44·64 per thousand, the mean of the preceding five years being 28·27 per thousand. The large excess was caused by an epidemic of cholera, which visited the District with great severity in 1876.

Narsinhpur.—The eastern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Narsinhpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 148,580, residing in 493 villages or townships and 29,290 houses; area, 993 square miles.

Narsinhpur (with *Kandelí*).—Chief town of Narsinhpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 56′ 35″ N., and long. 79° 14′ 45″ E., on the river Singrí, which has been dammed up to supply the town with water. Pop. (1872), 12,111. Formerly called Gádariá-kherá, or, under the Marhattás, when it became the headquarters of their force in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, Chhotá Gádarwára. The town took its present name after the erection of a large temple to Narsinha, one of the incarnations of Vishnu. It is an important entrepôt for the grain and cotton trade of the Narbadá valley. The chief Government buildings are the courts and offices of the Deputy

Commissioner and the police superintendent. The town has also a jail, a dispensary, a travellers' bungalow, and a native travellers' rest-house; besides a post office, a well-attended District school, two private schools, and a police school.

Narsinhpur.—Native State of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 20° 24′ and 20° 37′ N. lat., and between 85° and 85° 16′ 15″ E. long. Area, 199 square miles; pop. (1872), 24,758. Bounded on the north by a range of forest-clad mountains, which separate it from Angul and Hindol; on the east by Barambá; on the south and south-west by the Mahánadí river; and on the west by Angul. Of the total population, 22,493 are Hindus; 111 Muhammadans; 2154 'others.' Of the aboriginal tribes, the Kandhs and Taálas are the most numerous. The principal seat of local commerce is Kánpur, with bi-weekly markets, and trade in grain, cotton, oil-seeds, and sugar-cane. The State was founded about 300 years ago by a Rájput, who slew the former chiefs. It yields a yearly revenue of £984, and pays a tribute of £145 to the British Government. The State contains 10 schools; the Rájá's militia consists of a force of 583 men, and the police is 196 strong.

Narsinhpur.—Principal village of Narsinhpur State, Orissa, Bengal, and the residence of the Rájá. Lat. 20° 28′ N., long. 85° 7′ 1″ E.

Narsipur.—*Táluk* in Hassan District, Mysore. Area, 473 square miles, of which 45 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 42,345, of whom 41,165 are Hindus, 1063 Muhammadans, 106 Jains, and 11 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £5245, or 3s. 9d. per cultivated acre. Watered by the Hemavati, and by the irrigation channels drawn off from that river.

Narsipur (known as *Narsipur Hole*, to distinguish it from NARSIPUR TIRUMA-KADALU).—Municipal town in Hassan District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 47′ N., and long. 76° 16′ 40″ E., on the right bank of the Hemavati river, 21 miles south-east of Hassan town; headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 5253, of whom 4712 are Hindus, 9454 Muhammadans, 79 Jains, and 8 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £65; rate of taxation, 3d. per head. The fort was built in 1168 by a local chief called Narasinha Náyak, and annexed to Mysore in 1667. It is the residence of the *gúrú* of the Madva Bráhmans of the Uttaráji branch. Flourishing manufactures of cotton cloth and gunny bags.

Narsipur (known as *Tiruma-Kadalu*, or 'The most holy Union,' to distinguish it from NARSIPUR HOLE).—Municipal village in Mysore District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 12′ 40″ N., and long. 76° 57′ 21″ E., 18 miles south-east of Mysore town, at the confluence of the Kabbani river with the Káveri (Cauvery). Pop. (1871), 444; municipal revenue (1874-75), £17; rate of taxation, 9d. per head. Since 1868,

headquarters of the Talkad *táluk.* A sacred spot, containing two ancient temples. One dedicated to Vishnu, under his name of Gunjá Narasinha, was repaired by the Dalawái of Mysore about 300 years ago, and now has an annual allowance from Government of £96. The other, situated between the junction of the two rivers, and dedicated to Agastesvara, receives £182 a year.

Narukot.—Native State in the District of the Pánch Maháls, Guzerat, Bombay. Area, 143 square miles; pop. (1875), 6837, chiefly Náikrás. The chief, who is a Hindu of the Koli tribe, resides at Narukot village, and pays an annual tribute of £4 jointly to the British Government and to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The estate is managed by the British Government, who take half the total revenue (estimated at £770 annually), the remaining half going to the chief. The Náikrá population, who were at one time notorious for their turbulence, are now quiet and orderly.

Narukot.—Principal village of Narukot State, Pánch Maháls, Bombay, and the residence of the chief.

Narwár (*Nerwar*).—Town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated in lat. 25° 39′ 2″ N., and long. 77° 56′ 57″ E., on the right bank of the river Sind, on the route from Kalpi (Culpee) to Kotah, 152 miles south-west of the former and 169 north-east of the latter; 44 miles south of Gwalior city. Narwár is a town of great antiquity, and although now decayed, was once a place of much splendour. Nishida, which occupied the site of the present Narwár, was founded by a Kachwaha Rájá in 295 A.D.; and in the 9th century, the Kachwahas of Narwár are mentioned as marching to the defence of Chittor. The fort, a fine and massive building, was built, according to Ferishta, in the middle of the 13th century, and was soon after captured by Nasír-ud-dín, after a siege of several months. In 1506, it was again blockaded and taken by Sikandar Lodí, King of Delhi; and, some time later, it appears to have fallen again into the hands of the Hindus. Towards the end of last century, the Marhattás gained possession of Narwár; and it was guaranteed to Daulat Ráo Sindhia by the treaty of Allahábád in 1805. In 1844, it was, with the annexed territory, assessed by the Government of Gwalior at £22,500 annually. The river overflows annually during the rains, leaving numerous swamps round the town. Magnetic iron-ore is found in the neighbouring hills.

Násik (*Nasica* of Ptolemy).—A British District in the Bombay Presidency, lying between 19° 34′ and 20° 52′ N. lat., and between 73° 21′ and 75° 2′ E. long. Area (including the Native State of Peint), 8116 square miles; population in 1872, 734,386 persons. Exclusive of Peint, the area of the District (Parliamentary Abstract, 1878) is 7180 square miles, and the population 687,353. It is bounded on the north by Khándesh, on the east by the Nizám's Dominions, on the south by

Ahmednagar, and on the west by Tanna, the territories of Surgána, and the Khandesh Dángs.

Physical Aspects.—With the exception of a few villages in the west, the whole District is situated on a tableland, at an elevation of from 1300 to 2000 feet above the sea. The western portion, from north to south, called *dáng*, is generally much divided by hills, and intersected by ravines; and only the simplest kind of cultivation is possible. The eastern portion, called *desh*, is open, fertile, and well cultivated. The Chánder range of hills forms the watershed of the District. All streams of any size to the south of that range are tributaries of the Godávari—the principal of these being the Dárna, Kádwa, Deo, and Maralgin. To the north of the watershed, the Girna and its tributary the Mosam flow through fertile valleys into the Tápti. With the exception of the Sahyádri Mountains, which run north and south, the general direction of the hill ranges in Násik is from west to east. The District contains several old hill forts, the scenes of many engagements during the Marhattá war. The geological formation is trap—beds of basalt alternating, seemingly, quite horizontally with amygdaloid, the ridges of the hills everywhere capped with compact basalt, and the slopes below the upper basaltic escarpment formed by the weathering of the softer amygdaloid. No minerals are worked. Except in one or two Subdivisions, where good black soil is found, the soil is poor and stony. The forests which formerly covered the Sahyádri Hills have nearly disappeared, but every effort is being made to prevent further destruction, and to re-clothe some of the hills. The forests that remain contain but few timber-trees of value; but there is a good deal of valuable coppice teak, and much wood useful both for house-building and firewood. The District generally is very destitute of trees. Of wild animals, tigers, leopards, bears, antelopes, and spotted deer are found.

The territories which now constitute the District of Násik were annexed in 1818, on the defeat of the Peshwá.

Population.—The Census returns of 1872 disclosed a total population of 734,386 persons, residing in 1629 villages and in 133,848 houses; density of the population, 90·22 per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·2; houses per square mile, 16·44; persons per village, 450; persons per house, 5·49. Classified according to sex, there were 376,851 males and 357,535 females; proportion of males, 51·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 144,576, and females, 136,256; total children, 280,832, or 38·24 per cent. of the population. Ethnically divided, 693,335 were Hindus, 32,148 Musalmáns, 130 Pársís, 1064 Christians, 53 Jews, 15 Síkhs, and 7641 'others.' It is characteristic of the population to collect into numerous small compact villages. Except the village dealers,

carpenters, smiths, and a few others, traders and artisans are almost exclusively confined to the towns. The labourers even constitute generally an urban class, inasmuch as there are not many cultivators who are sufficiently well-to-do to employ labour. The inhabitants of the western villages, on and at the foot of the Sahyádri Hills, are to a great extent migratory. Their poor lands seldom yield crops for more than two years at a time; and often in the hot weather—their stock of grain running low—they are compelled to retire to the forest and support themselves by felling and carrying timber, feeding on fish, berries, and even roots. The chief hill tribes are Kolis, Bhíls, Thákurs, Wárlis, and Káthodis. The Kolis are more civilised and more generally engaged in agriculture than the rest; the Bhíls are poor cultivators, subsisting chiefly by gathering and selling forest produce—timber, honey, and lac; the Thákurs and Wárlis cultivate a little, but almost entirely by the hoe. The Káthodis or catechu makers are the worst off, and poorest-looking, of all these tribes. Of the other Hindus, the Marwáris, most of whom are said to have come into the District during the last fifty or sixty years, seem gradually to drop their peculiarities, and are now scarcely to be distinguished from other Hindus. They have taken to wearing the Deccan turban and the ordinary shoes, and are clean in their dress and habits; they even wear their hair as other Hindus, and speak Marhathi. The Musalmáns are nearly all of foreign origin, and are for the most part settled in towns. Many of the Sunnis are messengers and policemen, others are employed in weaving, agriculture, and as labourers. The Shiás are more frequently shopkeepers.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supports 379,908 persons, or 51·73 per cent. of the population. The land of the District may be divided into four classes—the reddish black mould along rivers; a light black soil higher up; a brown soil, stiffer and less deep, found on the higher lands near the Gháts; and highest and lightest of all, light brown or red, often strewn with boulders, and mixed with lime. A second crop is not often raised. Manure is invariably used for all garden crops, but rarely for others. Irrigation is generally practised where water is obtainable near the surface, and where a dam can be thrown across the streams and rivers. Out of 2,082,435 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 1,637,631 acres, or 78·64 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1875-76; of these, 231,987 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 1,405,644 acres under actual cultivation (9378 acres of which were twice cropped), grain occupied 1,042,768, or 74·18 per cent.; pulses, 156,220, or 11·11 per cent.; oil-seeds, 177,594, or 12·63 per cent.; fibres, 15,567, or 1·10 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 22,873 acres, or 1·63 per cent. In localities where there is good black soil, wheat, cotton, gram, and *tuner*, and where water is available,

sugar-cane, grapes, figs, guavas, and plantains are grown. On poor soil, *joár* and *bájra* are cultivated.

Natural Calamities.—Every now and then a frost occurs, which destroys or damages such crops as plantains, grapes, etc., and hardly a year occurs in which some part of the District does not suffer from want of rain. Partial inundations frequently occur, and the flood of 1872—when the river at Násik rose over 21 feet above its ordinary level—caused great damage.

Trade, Manufactures, etc.—Besides the railway line of 112 miles running through the District, there are about 468 miles of good roads. Cloth and silk goods are woven chiefly at Yeola, and thence sent as far as Bombay, Poona, Satára, Sholápur, and Nagar. The value of the exports from Yeola is calculated to amount to 15 *lákhs* of rupees (£150,000) annually. Copper, brass, and silver vessels are largely manufactured at Násik itself, and thence sent to Bombay, Poona, and other places. The principal articles of export are grain, oil-seeds, molasses, a little cotton cloth and silk goods, copper, brass, and silver ware. A great quantity of grain, chiefly wheat, is bought up by agents of Bombay firms, at Lasalgáum, on the railway, 146 miles from Bombay, where there is an almost constant market. Nearly every day from February to May about 500 carts, and as many more pack-bullocks, come laden with wheat and other grain, chiefly from the Nizám's Dominions. Some of these take away salt. There is also a considerable export of garden produce, onions, garlic, and betel-leaves. The chief imports are raw silk and cotton thread, copper and brass, sugar, groceries, and salt. Before the introduction of the railway, there was (chiefly along the Bombay and Agra and the Ahmednagar and Poona roads) a large carrying trade through the District. The Banjáras, Lamáns, and others in whose hands this traffic rested, have suffered much by the change. Such of them as remain have taken to agriculture. Weekly markets are held at every town, and in many of the larger villages. Besides these weekly markets, fairs are held each year in connection with certain temples and religious places, which partake very much of the nature of the markets, but are larger, and the variety of goods displayed is greater. They usually last for a week or a fortnight, and attract great numbers of people, even from considerable distances. The rates of interest generally vary from 6 to 18 per cent. per annum; but in the case of poor cultivators, they are sometimes as high as 24 per cent. Unskilled labourers earn 4½d. a day, bricklayers and carpenters, 1s. 6d. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1875-76 were, for a rupee (2s.)—*joár* (Indian millet), 76 lbs.; wheat, 39 lbs.; rice, 27 lbs.; and *dál* (split peas), 23 lbs.

Administration.—The revenue raised in 1876-77, under all heads—

imperial, local, and municipal—amounted to £180,461, or, on a population of 734,386, an incidence per head of 4s. 10d. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £120,700, or 66·88 per cent. of the total revenue. Other important items are stamps, excise, and local funds. The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded a total sum of £17,549. There are 7 municipalities, with an aggregate population of 73,595 persons. Their receipts are returned at £5578, and the incidence of taxation varied from 3d. to 1s. 5d. per head. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 5 Assistants, of whom 4 are covenanted civilians. For judicial purposes, Násik is included in the jurisdiction of the Judge of Tanna. There are 7 civil courts, which decided 11,801 suits in 1876; 26 officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police for the protection of person and property consisted, in the same year, of 745 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 985 of the population. The total cost was £12,013, equal to £1, 9s. 7d. per square mile of area, and 3¾d. per head of the population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1917, being 1 person to every 383 of the population. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855-56, there were only 17 schools, with 1268 pupils. In 1876-77, there were 153 schools, with 8397 names on the rolls, or an average of 1 school to every 10 inhabited villages. There are 3 libraries and reading-rooms. Two vernacular newspapers were published in the District in 1876-77.

Medical Aspects.—The rainfall is liable to great variation according to the distance from the Gháts. The average rainfall at Násik town during the five years ending 1876 was 35 inches. The prevailing diseases are fever and skin affections. In 1876-77, six dispensaries afforded medical relief to 246 in-door and 20,321 out-door patients, and 22,971 persons were vaccinated. Vital statistics showed a death-rate of 22·43 per thousand.

Násik.—Headquarters of Násik District, Bombay; situated in lat. 19° 59′ 45″ N., and long. 73° 49′ 50″ E., 4 miles north-west of the Násik road station of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Among Hindus, Násik is considered a spot of special interest and holiness. About 30 miles from its source, the river Godávari, flowing eastwards through a group of small hills, turns sharply to the south, and, after passing in that direction for about a mile, again swerves suddenly towards the east. Here, on both sides of the river, but chiefly on its right or south-eastern bank, lies the town of Násik. Along the right bank, the town stretches for about a mile, spreading over three small hills that rise abruptly from the river-side. The buildings, covering an area of about 2 square miles, are divided into two main parts—the

new town to the north and the old town to the south. Though, according to tradition, a place of extreme antiquity, the old town of Násik is without ruins or buildings of any age. In style and appearance, the houses do not differ from the new quarter, little of which is more than a hundred years old. Pánchwati, the portion of the city on the left bank of the river, in extent about one-seventh part of the whole, has several large temples and substantial dwellings, owned and inhabited chiefly by Bráhmans. Between Pánchwati and the old town, the river banks are for about 400 yards lined with masonry walls and flights of stone steps. On both sides, places of worship fringe the banks, and even the bed of the stream is thickly dotted with temples and shrines. Though the town is not walled, the streets opening on the river and leading to the southern and western suburbs are ornamented with gateways. The streets are for the most part narrow and crooked, and the houses, built on plinths 2 or 3 feet high, have almost all an upper floor, and most of them more than one storey. The fronts of many are rich in well-carved woodwork, and the whole place has an air of wealth and comfort not to be seen in many Deccan towns. Though, since the misfortunes of Ráma and Sítá, Násik has ranked among the most sacred places of Hindu pilgrimage, its early Hindu rulers do not seem to have raised the town to any position of wealth or importance. The Musalmáns made it the headquarters of a Division, and are said to have protected the town by building a fort, and to have fostered its trade, introducing the manufacture of paper and other industries. On the rise of the Marhattá power, Násik, chosen by the Peshwás as one of their capitals, increased in size and wealth. At first, under British government, it passed through a time of depression. But of late years, the opening of railway communication and the establishment here of the headquarters of Násik District, have added much to its wealth and prosperity. On account of the great number of pilgrims who visit its shrines, the population of Násik varies greatly at different times of the year. The fixed population would seem to increase but slowly. The returns for 1850 gave a total of 21,860, of whom 6067 were Bráhmans, 12,726 other Hindus, 3009 Musalmáns, 3 Pársís, and 55 Christians. In 1872, the inhabitants numbered 22,539. The industries of Násik maintain something of their former importance, although, owing to the competition of machinery, the manufacture of paper has greatly declined. Hand-loom weaving is still carried on with success, and in brass and copper work Násik ranks first among the towns of the Bombay Presidency. The old palace of the Peshwá accommodates the Collector's court and the municipal and other public offices. There are also a subordinate judge's court, a high school, and a post office. Besides being the headquarters station of the District, the town is also the seat of the

chief revenue and police officers of the Násik Subdivision. In hills near Násik are two sets of rock-cut temples—a small series about 2 miles to the east, and a larger series about 5 miles to the west of the town.

Nasírábád (or *Maimansinh*).—Civil station and administrative headquarters of Maimansinh District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Brahmaputra river (crossed here by a ferry), in lat. 24° 45′ 50″ N., and long. 90° 26′ 54″ E. Pop. (1872), 10,068, viz. 6795 males and 3273 females; municipal revenue (1871), £473, 6s.; rate of taxation, 11¼d. per head of population. Nasírábád is of no great commercial importance, as the Brahmaputra is only navigable by large boats during the rains; nor is it noted for any historical event. The only antiquities of any interest are two Hindu temples. The town contains good English and vernacular schools, and a charitable dispensary; small municipal police force.

Nasirábád.—Town in the Nasirábád Subdivision of Khándesh District, Bombay, and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 268 miles north-east of Bombay, and 8 miles south-west of Bhusáwal. Lat. 20° 58′ 30″ N., long. 75° 41′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 9941. The town is noted for the manufacture of glass bangles by Musalmáns. There are several old mosques in the neighbourhood. JALGAON, the headquarters of the Subdivision, lies about 6 miles to the west. Nasirábád was several times harried by the Bhíls of the Sátmála range before the occupation of the country by the British. In 1801, it was plundered by a freebooter named Juba, and again, just before the great famine of 1803, by one of the Peshwá's deputies. After this the village wall was built by one of the Purandhari family, to whom the town was given in grant.

Nasirábád.—Cantonment in Ajmere-Mhairwárá District, Rájputána; situated in lat. 26° 18′ 45″ N., and long. 74° 47′ E., on a bleak, open plain, sloping eastward from the Aravali Hills. The station, which was laid out in 1818 by Sir David Ochterlony, stretches over a mile in length, and has upon its outskirts a native town, irregularly built, containing about 18,000 inhabitants. Lines exist for a battery of Royal Artillery, a regiment of European infantry, a regiment of Native infantry, and a squadron of Native cavalry. Nasirábád is garrisoned by troops of the Bombay army. Drainage good; water brackish and insufficient in quantity. The troops at Nasirábád mutinied on 28th May 1857, but they met with no encouragement from the people, and marched away to Delhi without attempting to attack Ajmere.

Nasirábád.—*Táluk* in Mehar Sub-District, Shikárpur District, Sind, lying between 27° 17′ and 27° 33′ N. lat., and 67° 34′ and 68° 6′ E. long. Area, 343 square miles; pop. (1872), 33,597; gross revenue (1873-74), £14,492.

Nasirábád.—Town in Nasirábád *táluk*, Sind; situated in lat. 27° 23′ N., and long. 67° 57′ 30″ E., on the Chilo Canal, 10 miles east of Warah (the chief place in the *táluk*), and 14 north-east of Mehar; road communication with Lárkána and Mehar. Headquarters of a *tapadár;* contains a Deputy Collector's staging bungalow, and police lines. Pop. (1872), 1085. Local and transit trade in rice.

Nasírábád.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 14 miles north-east of Salon, in lat. 26° 15′ N., and long. 81° 34′ E. Pop. (1869), 3420, residing in 875 houses, of which as many as 162 are of brick.

Nasriganj.—Municipal town in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 3′ 15″ N., and long. 84° 22′ 25″ E., on the Koelwár-Dehrí road, about half a mile from the river Són. Pop. (1872), 5732. Forms the central town of the escheated Government estate of Bíbí Maulá Bakhsh. Large trade in bamboos and wood, and considerable manufacture of sugar. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £88; average taxation, $3\frac{5}{8}$d. per head of population.

Naswadi.—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 8 square miles; estimated revenue (1875), £1200; tribute of £169 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is Thákur Bhím Sinhjí.

Nátágarh.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Manufactures of brass and iron work. Aided vernacular school.

Náteputa.—Municipal town in Sholápur District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 53′ 40″ N., and long. 74° 47′ 36″ E., 42 miles north-west of Pandharpur, 66 miles east by north of Satára, and 78 miles west by north of Sholápur town. Pop. (1872), 2376; municipal revenue, £86. Dispensary.

Náthdwára. — Town in the State of Udáipur (Oodeypore) or Mewár, Rájputána; situated 22 miles from Udáipur town, on the right bank of the Banás. One of the most famous Vishnuvite shrines in India, possessing the original image of Krishna that was worshipped at Muttra (Mathurá). When Aurangzeb endeavoured to root out the worship of Krishna at Mathurá, the Ráná Ráj Sinh of Udáipur obtained permission to bring the renowned idol to Mewár; and it was escorted with vast pomp by the route of Kotah and Rámpura, until at length, after entering the territory of Udáipur, the chariot-wheel of the god stuck fast in a place called Siarh, in Delwára. The Ráo of Delwára, one of the sixteen great nobles of Mewár, declared that by this omen Krishna had intimated his wish that this should be his residence, and immediately conferred on Náthjí (the idol) all the lands of the village; and the pious gift was subsequently confirmed by his overlord the Ráná. Náthjí was removed from his chariot; in due time a temple was erected for his reception, and a great town of many thousands of inhabitants grew up around it, and was called Náthdwára, 'the portal

of the Lord Krishna.' From the little ridge of hills on the east to the banks of the Banás on the west, these precincts of the god have always been a sanctuary, within which no blood can be shed, no arrest is made, and the criminal is free from pursuit. Rich offerings are sent here from every corner of India, and crowds of pilgrims flock to the sacred shrine.

Náthpur.—Indigo factory in Purniah District, Bengal. Average area under cultivation, 100 *bighás.*

Nat-maw.—Village in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 17° 34′ 10″ N., and long. 95° 30′ 30″ E., on the bank of the Nat-maw stream. Pop. (1877), 2386.

Nat-maw.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 5961; gross revenue, £2453.

Nattor.—Subdivision of Rájsháhí District, Bengal, lying between 24° 9′ 30″ and 24° 48′ N. lat., and between 88° 53′ 15″ and 89° 23′ 30″ E. long. Area, 832 square miles; villages, 1368; houses, 86,363; pop. (1872), 426,724; persons per square mile, 513; villages per square mile, 1·64; persons per village, 312; houses per square mile, 104; persons per house, 4·9. This Subdivision includes the 4 police circles (*thánás*) of Nattor, Baráigáon, and Singrá.

Nattor.—The ancient capital of Rájsháhí District, and at present the headquarters of Nattor Subdivision, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Nárad river, in lat. 24° 25′ 15″ N., and long. 89° 2′ 21″ E. Its central situation led to its being made the early seat of administration; but owing to its unhealthiness (the town being built on low marsh land reclaimed from the river), the headquarters have been transferred to RAMPUR BEAULEAH, 30 miles distant. Nattor is a compact town clinging close around the Rájbárí or palace of the Nattor Rájás, who rose into power in the earlier half of the last century, and gradually obtained possession of almost the entire District. Their estate now only holds the third or fourth rank in Rájsháhí. Pop. (1872), 9674; municipal revenue (1871), £659, 10s.

Naubatpur.—Village in Benares District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 19′ N., and long. 83° 29′ E. (Thornton), on the banks of the Karamnása river, here crossed by a stone bridge. *Bázár*, staging bungalow.

Naugaon.—A British cantonment in Bundelkhand, Central India. —*See* NOWGONG.

Naupáda.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 18° 33′ 30″ N., long. 84° 20′ 50″ E.; pop. (1871), 1596; number of houses, 360. The place is notable for its salt manufacture, the annual value of which is about £100,000.

Naushahra (*Nowshera*).—*Tahsíl* of Pesháwar District, Punjab, stretching from the lowlands of the Kábul river southward to the

Kohát border. Area, 450 square miles; pop. (1868), 79,280, of whom a large number are Khataks; number of villages, 139.

Naushahra (*Nowshera*).—Village and cantonment in Pesháwar District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 33° 59′ 50″ N., long. 72° 1′ 45″ E., on the right bank of the Kábul river, 26 miles east of Pesháwar, 19 miles west of Attock, and 15 miles south of Hoti Mardan. The cantonment lies in a small sandy plain, 3 miles in width; surrounded on the east, south, and west by hills, but open on the north toward the Kábul river. There are lines for a British regiment, a regiment of Native cavalry, and another of Native infantry. *Bázár*, west of station; police station, *sarái*, post and telegraph offices. Bridge of boats across the Kábul river. At a distance of 1½ mile along the Pesháwar road stands an old fort, now used as a police station. Close by is a staging bungalow, and a mile farther on, the *tahsíli* and encamping ground. Good natural drainage; excellent water supply.

Naushahra (*Nowshera*).—Town in Hazára District, Punjab; situated in lat. 34° 10′ N., and long. 73° 18′ 45″ E., about 2 miles east of Abbottábád. Pop. (1868), 4049. Kshattriya traders, allied with those of Bálakot, carry on a brisk business in salt from the Jhelum mines, *ghí* from Khágán and Kashmír for Pesháwar, and English piece-goods. Before the establishment of Abbottábád, Naushahra was the principal town of the Rásh or Orásh plain.

Naushahra Kalán.—Agricultural village in Pesháwar District, Punjab; situated on the north bank of the Kábul river, opposite the cantonment of NAUSHAHRA (Nowshera), in lat. 34° 1′ N., and long. 72° 1′ 0″ E. Pop. (1868), 6083, consisting of 374 Hindus and 5709 Muhammadans. Picturesque and prosperous agricultural centre, with extensive irrigated lands. Government school.

Naushahro.—Sub-District of Haidarábád (Hyderábád) Collectorate, Sind, lying between lat. 26° 1′ 30″ and 27° 15′ N., and between long. 67° 51′ and 68° 54′ E. Area, 3067 square miles; pop. (1872), 219,596 persons. Bounded on the north and west by the Indus, on the east and north-east by Khairpur State and Thar and Párkar District, and on the south by Hála Sub-District.

Physical Aspects.—Naushahro consists of a wide alluvial plain, stretching from north to south, broken only by the forest lands bordering the Indus. The irrigation system comprises 80 canals, of which 20 are main feeders. The chief are—the Mahráb, 36 miles long; the Dádwáh, 32¾ miles long, which taps the Indus at Mitháni, and tails off at Yerú Dahri; the Nasrat, 30 miles long, tapping the Indus in Mohbat Dero forest; the Alí-bahár Kacheri, 30 miles long, tapping the Indus at Nakur; and the Bágwáh, 27½ miles long. The Nasrat was dug during the rule of Mír Muhammad Kalhora, and opened out

from a *dhandh* near Gulsháh, a fact which tends to show that the Indus formerly extended farther eastward, the old bed being still traceable at places. Game and fish are abundant. The forests of this Sub-District, some of which are very extensive, are 13 in number, and cover a total area of 75,269 acres, yielding in 1873-74 a revenue of £6147.

History.—The early history of Naushahro cannot be separated from that of the Province itself. On the division of Sind among the Tálpur chiefs after the decisive battle of Sháhpur in 1786, when Abdul Nabi Kalhora was defeated by Mírs Fateh Alí and Rustam Khán, the *parganás* of Kandiáro and Naushahro fell to the share of Mír Sohrab Khán Tálpur, and formed a portion of Khairpur State. This chief died in 1830, and dissensions then broke out between his sons Mír Rustam and Mír Alí Murád, which, in 1842, resulted in a battle, when the latter was victorious. In 1843, Alí Murád obtained the dignity of *Ráis*, or lord-paramount; and Naushahro and Kandiáro remained in his possession till 1852, when, in consquence of misconduct, they were confiscated and incorporated with the Haidarábád Collectorate. These *parganás*, with the *tálukas* of Moro and Sakrand, constitute the modern Sub-District of Naushahro.

Population.—The population in 1856 was estimated at 187,336. The Census of 1872 returned it at 219,596, of whom 185,521 were Musalmáns, and 34,075 Hindus. The number of persons per square mile is 71. The principal Muhammadan tribes represented are the Baluchis, Játs, Sindis, and Sayyids. The prevailing language, both spoken and written, is Sindi. Native traders use the Hindí-Sindi character. The Hindus are confined to the towns, and form the trading community. The chief towns are KANDIARO, NAUSHAHRO, THARU SHAH, BHIRIA, and MORO. There are 5 fairs held in the Sub-District.

Agriculture.—The most common form of irrigation is by the *charkhi*, or Persian wheel. When the rainfall is abundant, a large extent of *baráni*, or rain land, is brought under tillage. The most fertile soil in Naushahro is found in the Kandiáro *táluk*. The three principal crops are *kharíf*, *rabí*, and *peshras*. The first, sown in June and reaped in October, includes rice, *joár*, *bájra*, cotton, indigo, and tobacco. The *rabí* crops, sown in December and reaped in March, comprise wheat, oil-seeds, barley, gram, *china*, *bhang*, and vegetables; the *peshras* crops, sown in October and reaped in January, include sugar-cane, *bájra*, and cotton. Irrigation from canals is largely practised. The cultivable land held in *jágír* covers an area of about 104,000 acres, of which 61,000 acres are in the Moro *táluk*, and 32,500 in Sakrand. The survey was completed in 1863; and the existing settlement was introduced between the years 1864-65 and 1868-69, in some instances for nine, and in others for ten years. The total area of cultivable land

in the Sub-District is 1,036,283 acres, but of these only 256,054 are actually under cultivation.

Manufactures.—The chief manufactures are cotton cloth, coarse paper, soap, oil, coloured clay rings for women's ornaments, saddles, and salt. The trade of Naushahro is principally in grain and other agricultural produce, and is almost entirely carried by the Indus, and the canals connected with that river. The imports comprise wheat and rice, metals and metal goods, sugar, and European piece-goods. Estimated value of exports, £40,300; of imports, £44,000. Naushahro has also a considerable transit traffic in dried fruits, woollen and camel's hair cloths, carpets, silk, and embroidered goods, horses and asses. The total length of roads in the Sub-District is about 600 miles, of which 91 are postal and trunk lines. The postal road from Haidarábád to Rohri passes through Naushahro, but has no station here at present. There are 16 ferries, of which 14 are on the Indus.

Revenue.—The imperial revenue in 1873-74 was £44,089; the local, £3744; total, £47,833. The land tax yielded £36,810; *ábkári* or excise, £918; stamps, £2795; and salt, £493. The local cesses on land yielded £2432; cattle pound and ferry funds, £807; and fisheries, £410. The Sub-District of Naushahro, divided into the 4 *táluks* of Kandiáro, Naushahro, Moro, and Sakrand, is administered by a Deputy Collector, with full magisterial powers. There is one civil court with its headquarters at Naushahro town, subordinate to the District Judge of Haidarábád. The police force numbers in all 161 men, being 1 constable to every 1364 of the population. There is a subordinate jail at Naushahro town. The total number of schools is 23, with 1122 pupils; of these, 19 are Government institutions. There are no schools for girls in this Sub-District. Naushahro contains 5 municipalities, viz. Kandiáro, Naushahro, Tháru Sháh, Bhiria, and Moro. Their aggregate receipts in 1873-74 were £981.

Climate, etc.—The rainfall in 1874 amounted to 5·30 inches. The chief diseases are fevers, bowel complaints, and pulmonary affections. The only medical institution is the dispensary at Tháru Sháh.

Naushahro.—*Táluk* in Naushahro Sub-District, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) Collectorate, Sind, lying between 26° 36′ and 27° 9′ N. lat., and between 67° 54′ and 68° 25′ E. long. Area, 531 square miles; pop. (1872), 72,711; gross revenue (1873-74), £16,014.

Naushahro.—Municipal town in the *táluk* and Sub-District of the same name, Haidarábád Collectorate, Sind; situated in lat. 26° 51′ N., and long. 10° 8′ E., close to the Pairozwáh Canal, and on the main road from Haidarábád city to Rohri; 15 miles north-east of Moro. Good roads to Phul, Mitháni, and Pad-eden. Residence of a *múkhtiárkar* and a *tappadár*, and contains the usual public buildings, with jail, school, bungalows, etc. Pop. (1872), 2950; municipal revenue (1873-74),

£174. Chief industry, weaving; trade in grain and cloth, which are annually exported to the value of £6000. Naushahro is said to have been founded about 160 years ago. During the Tálpur dynasty it was an important artillery depôt of the Mírs.

Naushahro Alro.—*Táluk* of the Sukkur and Shikárpur Sub-District, Shikárpur Collectorate, Sind. Area, 415 square miles; pop. (1872), 48,226; gross revenue (1873-74), £11,059. Portions of this *táluk* suffer from disastrous floods, which have made a desert of what was formerly a flourishing country. Embankments have lately been constructed, and have to some extent proved useful.

Nauthán Dubá.—Village in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 42′ 15″ N., long. 84° 32′ E.; pop. (1872), 8117.

Navasári (*Navsári*).—Town in the territory of Baroda, Bombay.—*See* NOSARI.

Návgarh.—Port in Tanna District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade during five years ending 1873-74—imports, £348; exports, £1914.

Nawabandar.—Port in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—*See* NAWIBANDAR.

Nawábganj—Central *tahsíl* of Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a well-tilled portion of the level Rohilkhand plain. Area, 226 square miles, of which 177 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 124,776; land revenue, £22,803; total Government revenue, £25,224; rental paid by cultivators, £36,720; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 1¾d.

Nawábganj.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Rámnagar and Fatehpur, on the east by Daryábád, on the south by Partábganj, and on the west by Dewa. Area, 79 square miles, or 50,479 acres, of which 32,266 acres are cultivated, 11,276 cultivable, and 5592 barren. The river Kalyáni skirts the *parganá* on the north, and flows for about 8 miles within its limits, having about 12 villages on its banks. Pop. (1869), 62,838, viz. Hindus, 47,808, and Muhammadans, 15,030. Of the 77 villages comprising the *parganá*, 44 are held under *tálukdárí*, and 33 under *mufrád* tenure. The principal landholder is Rájá Farzand Alí Khán of Jahangírábád, who owns 25 out of the 44 *tálukdárí* villages. Government land revenue, £8744. Principal manufactures, sugar and cotton cloth. Communication is afforded by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, the imperial road from Lucknow to Faizábád (Fyzábád), and a road to Bahramghát.

Nawábganj.—Chief town of Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated 17 miles east of Lucknow, on the road from that city to Faizábád (Fyzábád). Lat. 26° 55′ 55″ N., long. 81° 14′ 35″ E. The civil station and administrative headquarters of the District is situated on high ground a mile west of the town, separated from it by a small stream, the Jamuriha.

The ground in the immediate neighbourhood is barren, and much cut up by ravines. The Deputy Commissioner's court, the offices of the Assistant Engineer and the Assistant Opium Officer, the jail, police lines, and a few bungalows for the European residents, constitute the civil station. The Government dispensary, school, and police station are situated in the native town. Nawábganj contained a population in 1869 of 10,606, viz. 7411 Hindus and 3195 Muhammadans. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £1096; average incidence of taxation, 11⅛d. per head of population (14,910), including the station of Bára Bánki. The main street of the town is broad, with well-built houses on either side. Large trade in sugar and cotton. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway has a station at Bára Bánki. During the Mutiny of 1857, Nawábganj was the scene of a signal defeat of the insurgent army by a British force under Sir Hope Grant.

Nawábganj.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mahádeva and Mánikpur, on the east by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, on the south by the Gogra river separating it from Faizábád (Fyzábád), and on the west by *parganás* Digsár and Mahádeva. Area, 142 square miles, of which 64 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 61,417, viz. Hindus, 58,264, and Muhammadans, 3153. The prevailing tenure is *tálukdárí*; the principal *tálukdárs* being Mahárání Subháo Kunwár, the widow of the late Mahárájá Sir Mán Sinh, K.C.S.I.; Rájá Krishan Datt Rám of Sinha Chánda; and Mahant Har Charan Dás of Basantpur. Government land revenue, £6653.

Nawábganj.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh; situated a few miles north of the Gogra river, in lat. 26° 55′ 45″ N., and long. 82° 11′ 36″ E. Founded in the last century by Nawáb Shujá-ud-daulá as a *bázár* for the supply of provisions to his troops and attendants when on his hunting expeditions, and now the largest grain mart in the District. Pop. (1869), 6131, residing in 1273 mud-built houses. The town contains 22 Hindu temples and 3 Muhammadan mosques, a small *sarái* or travellers' rest-house, and 1 school. It consists of a long street, with shops and dwelling-houses on each side, in front of which are piled heaps of grain to attract the attention of dealers. To the north, the street broadens on to a good-sized plain, which is bordered here and there by substantial sheds for the storage of merchandise, and serves as a standing place for the carts which bring down the produce of the *tarái.* The principal exports are rice, oil-seeds, wheat, Indian corn, and hides. The imports are quite insignificant, being confined to salt, English cloth, and pottery, from Mírzápur or Bhagwantnagar. The trade on leaving Nawábganj takes two main directions—one by the Gogra to Patná, and Lower Bengal; the other through Faizábád to Cawnpore, and the cotton country. The main export by the latter is

rice, while Bengal absorbs the greatest part of the oil-seeds, Indian corn, and hides.

Nawábganj.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 12 miles north-east of Unao town, on the Lucknow road. Pop. (1869), 3128, viz. Hindus, 2571, and Muhammadans, 547. Formerly the head-quarters of a *tahsíl* and police circle, but these having been removed, the place has decayed. A large fair is held every year at the end of the month of Chaitra in honour of the goddesses Durga and Kusahri, which attracts a large gathering from Lucknow and Cawnpore, besides the people of the neighbourhood.

Nawábganj.—Municipal town in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 45′ 40″ N., long. 88° 23′ 52″ E.; pop. (1872), 16,525; municipal income (1872), £669; rate of taxation, 9¾d. per head of population; municipal police, 49 men. Adjacent to Nawábganj is the small village of PALTA.

Nawábganj.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 29′ 0″ N., and long 87° 17′ 0″ E., 34 miles from Purniah town, and 12 from the banks of the Ganges, opposite Sáhibganj. It is considered to include the village of Bákhmárá, which lies a mile distant; the whole was let from 1873 to 1878 as an indigo farm. Pop. estimated at 1500. Primary school. The town is said to have been founded in order to protect the route from Purniah to Rájmahál (the seat of Government in the later Musalmán times), which was infested by gangs of robbers. Nawábganj contains an old fort in ruins, covering an area of about 80 acres. Exports of rice, jute, tobacco, indigo, and oil-seeds; imports of piece-goods, spices, brass and iron ware, etc.

Nawáda.—Subdivision of Gayá District, Bengal, lying between 24° 30′ 30″ and 25° 7′ N. lat., and between 85° 15′ 30″ and 86° 6′ E. long. Area, 1020 square miles; villages, 1052; houses, 72,968; pop. (1872), 444,996; proportion of males in total population, 49·87 per cent. The Hindus numbered 399,905; Muhammadans, 44,876; Christians, 2; 'others,' 213. Average density of population, 436·27 per square mile; number of inhabitants per village, 423; houses per square mile, 71·53; inmates per house, 6·09. This Subdivision comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Nawáda, Rájaulí, and Pakríbaránwán. In 1869, it contained 2 courts, a regular police force of 83 men, and a village watch numbering 1471; cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £3588, 7s.

Nawáda.—Headquarters of the Nawáda Subdivision, Gayá District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 52′ 42″ N., and long. 85° 35′ 1″ E., on a branch of the river Dhanarji. Pop. under 5000. Has a large and increasing through traffic. Municipal police force, 21 men. The name of this town is thought to be a corruption of Nauábádah. Before its acquisition by the Company, Nawáda was ruled by the semi-independent Rájás of Hasúá.

Nawádá.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 35′ 30″ N., long. 87° 30′ E.; pop. (1872), between 2000 and 3000. Noted for the manufacture of a superior quality of cane sugar; trade in agricultural produce.

Nawagáon.—Hill range in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; rising 200 feet above the plain, with eight distinct peaks, known as the 'Seven Sisters and their Little Brother.' Though scantily clothed with vegetation, these hills are infested with wild animals.

Nawagáon.—Artificial lake in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 55′ N., and long. 80° 11′ E.; 17 miles in circumference, and with an average depth of 40 feet; surrounded by the NAWAGAON HILLS. Numerous streams supply the lake, which is closed by two embankments, respectively 330 and 540 yards in length. Chimná Pátel, the ancestor of the proprietor of Nawagáon village, constructed the work, which now affords means of irrigation for 500 acres of rice and sugar-cane land.

Nawagáon.—State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* NAIGAON RIBAHI.

Nawágarh.—Fort in Bashahr State, Punjab; on a ridge stretching south-east from the great range of Moral-ka-kanda. Lat. 31° 15′ N., long. 77° 40′ E. Fortified with stockades, and held by the Gurkhás (1000 strong), during the war of 1814-15; but the people of Bashahr rose against their foreign masters, invested the fort, and compelled the garrison to surrender.

Nawalgúnd. — Chief town of the Nawalgúnd Subdivision of Dhárwár District, Bombay; situated 24 miles north-east of Dhárwár town, in lat. 15° 33′ 10″ N., and long. 75° 23′ 40″ E. Pop. (1872), 9578; municipal income, £359. Post office. The town is celebrated for the excellence of its cotton carpets, and also for its toys. The town, and also much of the surrounding country, formerly belonged to a local chief called the Desái of Nawalgúnd. It was conquered by Tipú Sultán, and taken from him by the Marhattás, who gave the Desái's family a maintenance in land yielding £2300 per annum.

Nawalpur.—One of the petty Bhíl States in what are known as the Mehwasi tracts of Khandesh, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 55; supposed gross revenue, £60. Principal produce, timber. The chief is Lashkari Walad Kivar Padir, a Bhíl.

Nawánagar. — Native State on the southern shore of the Gulf of Cutch (Kachchh) in the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Bombay. Area, 3395 square miles; pop. (1872), 290,847. The territory lies between 21° 44′ and 22° 54′ N. lat., and between 68° 58′ and 71° E. long. It is generally flat, but about two-thirds of the Barda Hills are contained within its limits. Irrigation is conducted by means of water drawn from wells by bullocks, and in some places by aqueducts from

rivers. Especially on the coast of the Gulf of Cutch, along which the territory extends, the climate is good. There are stone quarries within the limits of the State, and iron-ore is also found. The principal products are grain and cotton; and cloth and silk are the chief manufactures. A considerable number of people are employed as dyers. The dyes given to the local fabrics are much admired, and their excellence is attributed to the quality of the water of the Nague, which washes the walls of the city of Nawánagar. The harbours of Jária and Nawánagar are situated within the State; and there is land communication by carts and pack-bullocks, horses, and camels. The present (1876-77) chief or Jám of Nawánagar, Srí Vibhájí, is a Hindu of the Járeja Rájput caste, and is fifty-one years old. He administers the State in person. The Járejas entered Káthiáwár from Cutch and dispossessed the ancient family of Jetwás (Parbandar), then established at Ghumli. It is said that Nawánagar was founded in 1442. The Muhammadans called it Islámnagar, but the Jáms have restored the original name. The Jáms are of the same family as the Ráos of Cutch. The chief of Dhrol State claims to be descended from a brother of Jám Ráwal, founder of the Nawánagar line, and Rájkot is also an offshoot from this State. The Jám, in 1807, executed the usual engagements to pay tribute regularly, to keep order in his territory, and not to encroach on his neighbours. The Járeja tribe was, at the beginning of this century, notorious for the systematic murder of female children, to avoid the difficulty of providing them with husbands. Engagements were entered into by the Járeja chiefs in 1812 to abandon this custom, and, under the constant watchfulness of the British officers, it is believed that it is now extinct. Nawánagar officially ranks as one of the 'first-class' tributary States of Káthiáwár; its chief, who is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, having power to try for capital offences, without permission from the Political Agent, any person except British subjects. The estimated gross revenue is £181,960; and the chief pays tribute of £12,000 jointly to the British Government, the Gáekwár of Baroda, and the Nawáb of Junágarh. He maintains a military force of 2701 men. He holds a title authorizing adoption; and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There are at present 36 schools in the State, with 3200 pupils.

Nawánagar.—Chief town and seaport of Nawánagar State, Káthiáwár, Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 26′ 30″ N., and long. 70° 16′ 30″ E., 310 miles north-west of Bombay. Pop. (1872), 34,744. It is a flourishing town, nearly 4 miles in circuit, with a large trade. In the sea, north of the town, are some beds of pearl oysters; but the pearls are of inferior quality, and the fishery appears to be mismanaged.

Nawápur.—Port in Tanna District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 47′ N., long.

72° 43′ 30″ E. Average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £127, and exports, £2138.

Nawáshahr.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, lying between 30° 58′ 15″ and 31° 17′ 15″ N. lat., and between 75° 49′ 45″ and 76° 19′ E. long.

Nawáshahr.—Municipal town in Jalandhar District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 31° 7′ 30″ N., long. 76° 9′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 4647, consisting of 3108 Hindus and 1539 Muhammadans. Founded by Nausher Khán, an Afghán, during the reign of the Emperor Bábar. Large trade in sugar; manufacture of scarves and other cotton goods. *Tahsíli, sarái*, 2 grant-in-aid schools, and 2 indigenous girls' schools. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £146, or 7d. per head of population (4946) within municipal limits.

Na-weng.—River in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; formed by the junction of two streams, known as the North and South Na-weng. The north Na-weng rises in the Pegu Yoma range to the north of the Pa-douk spur, and flows down a narrow rocky valley opening on the plains. From its source to Tsheng-won village, its course is north-west; thence it runs west and south-west till it joins the South Na-weng, a mile south of Myo-ma village. The South Na-weng also rises in the Pegu Yomas immediately south of the Pa-douk spur, which forms the watershed between these two streams up to their union at its south-west extremity. As far as the mouth of the Teng-gyí, a stream draining a long and somewhat bell-shaped valley, and joining the South Na-weng near Rat-thit, the river has a south-westerly course, winding down a gorge and fed by mountain torrents. Thence it debouches on the plains, and, after a short north-west course, turns south-west to fall into the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), in lat. 18° 49′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 18′ E., near the town of Prome. The chief affluents of the Na-weng, after its junction with the South Na-weng, are the Kouk-gway, Law-thaw, and Thit-kyí. In the hot season, nearly all these streams are dry; but during the rains, they bring down vast volumes of water, the drainage of an area of about 700 square miles finding its way out by means of the Na-weng. These feeders are only navigable by small craft for a short time in the year. The Na-weng is now mainly used as a channel for floating the valuable timber from the forests on the Yoma range.

Nawibandar.—Port in Káthiáwár, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 26′ N., and long. 69° 50′ E., on the south-west coast, at the mouth of the river Bhádar, which during the monsoon is navigable by boats for about 18 miles. The port is available only for small craft.—(For nautical directions, see Taylor's *India Directory*, p. 355.)

Nayá Bagni.—One of the chief channels by which the Padmá or main stream of the Ganges now discharges its waters into the estuary

of the Meghná. The Nayá Bagni is south of the Kirtinása, and within the jurisdiction of Bákarganj District.

Nayá-Dumká.—Headquarters Sub-District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal, lying between 23° 48′ and 24° 50′ N. lat., and between 86° 30′ 30″ and 87° 58′ E. long. Area, 1474 square miles; number of villages, 2602; houses, 50,376; pop. (1872), 291,263, of whom 140,121 were Hindus, 6362 Muhammadans, 44 Christians, and 144,736 of other religious denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 49·8 per cent.; average number of persons per square mile, 198; villages per square mile, 1·77; persons per village, 112; houses per square mile, 34; persons per house, 5·8. The Sub-District consists of the single police circle of Nayá-Dumká. In 1870-71, it contained 1 magisterial and revenue court, a general police force of 31 men, and a village watch of 530; the separate cost of administration was returned at £1641.

Nayá-Dumká.—Administrative headquarters of the District of the Santál Parganás, and also of Nayá-Dumká Sub-District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 16′ N., long. 87° 17′ 30″ E. Trade in local produce, and in European piece-goods, salt, etc.

Nayágáon.—State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* NAIGAON RIBAHI.

Nayágáon.—Town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, lying in lat. 25° 3′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 27′ 30″ E., on the route from Ajáigarh to Kálinjar, 9 miles north-east of the former and 6 south-west of the latter. Pop. (1872), 2338, chiefly Lodhis. The town is picturesquely situated in a fertile well-wooded valley, but the heat in summer is said to be almost insupportable.

Nayágarh.—Petty State in Orissa, Bengal, lying between 19° 54′ 30″ and 20° 20′ 30″ N. lat., and between 84° 50′ 45″ and 85° 18′ E. long. Area, 588 square miles; population in 1872, 83,249 persons. Bounded on the north by Khandpára, on the east by Ranpur, on the south by Purí District, and on the west by the Madras State of Gumsar and by Daspallá.

Physical Aspects.—Nayágarh is a large and valuable territory, with some wide tracts of highly cultivated land. Towards the south and south-east, the country is exceedingly wild, and incapable of tillage, but the jungles on the west might be profitably brought under cultivation. The State abounds in noble scenery; and a splendid range of hills, varying from 2000 to 3000 feet in height, runs through its centre. It sends rice, coarse grain, cotton, sugar-cane, and several kinds of oil-seeds to the neighbouring Districts of Cuttack and Ganjám. Of the total population (83,249), 78,028 are Hindus, 226 Muhammadans, and 4995 'others.' The most numerous aboriginal tribe is that of the Kandhs. The total number of villages is 637, only 1 of which contains

more than 2000 inhabitants. Nayágarh State was founded about five hundred years ago by a scion of the family of the Rájput Rájá of Rewah. It originally comprised Khandpárá, but about two hundred years ago this was erected into an independent territory. The annual revenue is estimated at £5418; the tribute to the British Government is £552. The Rájá's militia consists of 62 men, and the police force of 495. There are 19 schools scattered throughout the State.

Nayákan-hatti (or *Hatti*).—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Lat. 14° 28′ 10″ N., long. 76° 34′ 21″ E.; pop. (1871), 2723. The residence of a line of *paligárs*, whose legendary history is associated with the breeding of cattle and sheep. Their territory was absorbed by the neighbouring chief of Chitaldrúg, shortly before the rise of Haidar Alí. Náyakan-hatti contains the tomb of Tippa Rudra, a celebrated *mahápurusha* or saint of the Lingáyats, who lived about 200 years ago. His car-festival is annually attended by 15,000 people.

Nayánagar. — Municipal town in Ajmere-Mhairwára District, Rájputána.—*See* BEAWAR.

Nazirá.—Village in Síbságar District, Assam. Lat. 26° 55′ N., long. 94° 48′ E.; on the right bank of the Dikhu river, about 10 miles south-east of Síbságar town. Important as containing the headquarters of the Assam Tea Company.

Neddiavattam. — Village and post station in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras. Lat. 11° 28′ to 11° 30′ N., and long. 76° 32′ to 76° 39′ E. Stands at the head of the Gúdalúr *ghát*, leading from Malabar and the Wynád coffee districts to the Nílgiris, about 5800 feet above sea level, and 22 miles from Utakamand (Ootacamund).

Neemuch.—Cantonment and town in Central India.—*See* NIMACH.

Negapatam [*Nágapatnam*, *Nigamos* (Gr.), *Nigama Metrop.* (Latin), the *Malifattan* of the Arab geographers (Yule), and *The City of Choramandel* of the early Portuguese].—Town and chief port of Tanjore District, Madras, and the terminus of the South Indian Railway. Lat. 10° 45′ 37″ N., long. 79° 53′ 28″ E.; pop. (with Nagúr) in 1871, 48,667; number of houses, 9082. With the adjoining town of Nagúr, it forms a municipality; income in 1876-77, £5830; incidence of taxation, about 1s. a head. Among the principal buildings are a Jesuit college, a Wesleyan mission establishment, and 2 large Hindu temples. There is also a fine dispensary, erected, and chiefly maintained, by local subscriptions. Negapatam contains the courts and offices of a District *munsif*, a Sub-Collector, and a *tahsíldár;* and the chief Government salt depôt of Tanjore.

The port carries on an active trade with Ceylon, Burma, and the Straits; the imports consisting chiefly of cotton goods and betel-nuts, and the exports of rice and paddy. Average annual value of trade for the last five years—exports, £522,460; imports, £390,436. Negapatam

was one of the earliest settlements of the Portuguese on the Coromandel Coast. It was taken by the Dutch in 1660, and by the English in 1781. It was the residence of the Collector of Tanjore, from the cession of the District to the British by treaty in 1799 until the year 1845, when the headquarters were removed to Tranquebar, on the acquisition of that place by purchase from Denmark.

The population contains a large proportion (nearly 20 per cent.) of Labhais, a Musalmán people half Arab half Hindu in origin, who have, under British rule, developed great capacity for trade. They are a bold, active, and thrifty race, and have established prosperous colonies in Burma and the Straits Settlements, with which countries they carry on a brisk trade. The harbour has a fixed white dioptric light, 82 feet above high-water mark. The railway statistics for 1875 showed a passenger traffic of 326,340.

Negrais.—Island, Bassein District, British Burma.—*See* HAING-GYI.

Nekmard.—Fair held annually in Bhawánípur village, Dinájpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 59′ N., long. 88° 18′ 30″ E. It takes its name from a Muhammadan *pír* or saint, whose tomb is a place of pilgrimage. The fair lasts six or seven days, and is frequented by about 100,000 persons from all parts of India. It is principally a cattle fair; but all varieties of articles are brought for sale, —elephants from Dárjíling and Assam; dried fruits, embroidered saddlery, daggers, swords, etc., by the Mughals and Afgháns; ivory and sandal-wood combs by the Síkhs; blankets, walnuts, *yák* tails, etc., by the hill tribes; English piece-goods, brass pots, hookahs, etc.

Nelamangala.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore. Area, 209 square miles, of which 128 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 71,509, viz. 67,963 Hindus, 3373 Muhammadans, 132 Jains, and 41 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £9512, or 2s. 5d. per cultivated acre. Soil—red mould, shallow, and gravelly, dependent upon the rainfall; dry crops—*rágí*, *ballar*, *save*, and gram; wet crops—rice, sugar-cane, and a little wheat.

Nelamangala.—Municipal town in Bangalore District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 6′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 26′ E., 17 miles by road north-west from Bangalore town. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 4016; municipal revenue (1874-75), £43, 9s.; rate of taxation, 2½d. per head. Built on the site of a ruined city, to which tradition gives the name of Bhumandana. A weekly fair on Friday is attended by 2500 persons.

Nelambúr.—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 17′ N., long. 76° 15′ 45″ E.; pop. (1871), 11,283; number of houses, 1529. Noteworthy for its splendid teak plantations belonging to Government.

Nelambúr.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 46′ 15″ N., long. 77° 38′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 6811; number of houses, 1725.

Nellore (*Nellúr*).—A British District of the Madras Presidency, upon the eastern or Coromandel coast, lying between 13° 25′ and 15° 55′ N. lat., and between 79° 9′ and 80° 14′ E. long. On the east it is washed by the Bay of Bengal; its western boundary is formed by the Eastern Gháts, which separate it from the Districts of Karnúl (Kurnool) and Cuddapah (Kadapa); north it is bordered by Kistna District; south by North Arcot and Chengalpat (Chingleput). Estimated total area, 8462 square miles; total population, according to the Census of 1871, 1,376,811 persons. The administrative headquarters are at NELLORE TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Nellore District occupies a tract of low land stretching from the base of the Eastern Gháts to the sea. Its general aspect is forbidding. The coast-line is uniformly constituted by a fringe of blown sand, through which the waves occasionally break and spread a salt sterility over the fields. Farther inland, the country begins to rise. But the soil is not naturally fertile, nor are means of irrigation readily at hand. Scarcely one-half of the total area is cultivated. The rest is either a rocky waste or covered with dense scrub jungle. The finest trees are to be found in the neighbourhood of the village sites. Along the western frontier rises a barren range of mountains, which throws out numerous spurs into the plain. A remarkable natural feature is the island of SRIHARIKOTA, a low ridge of sand which divides the LAKE OF PULIKAT from the main sea. Inhabited only by scattered families of the wild tribe of Yanadis, it has never been brought under cultivation; but since the introduction of a new system of jungle conservancy, Madras city has regularly been supplied with fuel from this otherwise unprofitable waste.

The chief rivers of Nellore are the PENNAIR, the SUVARNAMUKHI, and the GUNDLAKAMMA, which all rise in the tableland above the Gháts, and flow east through the District to the sea. The numerous minor streams are little more than mountain torrents, unavailable for irrigation. The Pennair runs through the District for a total course of about 70 miles, passing by the town of Nellore. For nine months of the year its bed, which is rocky among the hills but sandy lower down, is almost dry, with deep pools here and there, into which the fish collect. The season of flood (full or partial) lasts altogether for about 60 days. When the stream is at its highest, the volume of water is 500 yards wide and 30 feet deep, filling the bed from bank to bank. The chief irrigation work on the Pennair is the anicut at Nellore town, from which numerous channels are led off on the south bank. The floods of the Suvarnamukhi also supply a series of irrigation channels. The bordering range of the EASTERN GHATS rises in its highest peak, Penchalakonda, to an elevation of about 3000 feet above sea level. Detached from this range is the isolated hill or *drúg* of UDAYAGIRI

(3079 feet), which was till recent times the rock fortress of an independent Muhammadan chieftain.

Throughout the District generally, the underlying rocks belong to the metamorphic series, which occasionally crops up in the form of gneiss, schist, and quartz, and is intersected by veins of quartz and volcanic rocks. The Eastern Gháts, on the other hand, are capped by a series of sedimentary formation, chiefly altered sandstone and slate, known as the 'Cuddapah Group.' Organic remains of fern-like plants have been found in several places. A band of laterite, varying greatly in width, extends almost continuously along the coast, and is largely quarried for building material. Copper was discovered in the western hills in 1801. The ore was found on assay to yield a large percentage of metal, and European capital was attracted to the spot. But the enterprise has repeatedly proved unsuccessful, and no fresh attempt has been made since 1840. Iron-ore, chiefly in the form of sand, is collected and smelted, according to native methods, in many places. It is worked up into tools, but no steel is manufactured. Saltpetre is made in a few villages, by refining down the nitrous earth to be found on the surface.

Wild animals are comparatively rare in Nellore. Tigers are now almost unknown, except when a stray one wanders across the mountains from Cuddapah. Leopards, bears, *sámbhar* deer, and occasionally bison are still to be found among the western hills. Antelope, spotted deer, and wild hog are generally distributed, while the small game comprise snipe, duck, bustard, and florikin. In 1870, the total number of reported deaths from wild beasts was 4; from snake-bite, 24; from scorpion stings, 6. The total amount paid in rewards for killing wild beasts was £26.

History.—Nellore possesses no independent history of its own. In primitive times it formed part of the ancient Division of Telingána, or the Telugu-speaking country, and passed successively under the rule of the Yadava, Chalukya, Kalyána, and Ganapatti dynasties. Lying on the frontier of the Tamil country, and not far from Orissa, it was frequently partitioned between the rival kingdoms which advanced or retreated during this troubled period. Many of the old temples in the District show by inscriptions that they were built or restored by Rájá Krishna Deva-ráyalu, the most powerful monarch of Vijáyanagar of the Narapatti line, who reigned from 1509 to 1530. The earliest chieftain that can be localized in Nellore is named Mukunti, who, according to local tradition, lived in the 11th century, and was tributary to the Chola Rájás. After him, in the 12th century, came one Siddi Rájá; and during the same period, the north of the District is said to have been under the rule of a number of petty chiefs, belonging to the Yadava or shepherd caste. The oldest native family now existing in Nellore is

that of the Rájá of Venkatagiri, who professes to trace back an unbroken descent for twenty-seven generations. The traditions of the family recount numerous wars with the Muhammadans, who probably first invaded the country under Kafur in 1307; but it was not permanently conquered until the time of the Kutab Sháh dynasty at Golconda.

The first fact in the modern annals of Nellore is the settlement of the English at ARMEGHON (Armagon) in 1628. Expelled by the Dutch from the Spice Islands by the Massacre of Amboyna in 1623, the East India Company was induced to turn its attention to the Coromandel coast. The earliest factory was planted at Masulipatam in 1625; but three years later, Mr. Francis Day, the future founder of Madras, being probably still pressed by Dutch rivalry, migrated southward to the little village of Durgaráyapatam. Here he built a fort, and called its name after Armugam Mudelliar, the head-man of the village, who had shown him hospitality. Eleven years afterwards, in 1639, Armeghon in its turn gave way to Fort St. George or Madras; and its historic name is now preserved only by an insignificant lighthouse. Nellore town first emerges into history during the Karnatic wars of the 18th century, when the English and French were contesting the supremacy of the East. It formed part of the dominions of the Nawáb of the Karnatic, and possessed considerable strategic importance as commanding the northern high road and the passage of the Pennair. In 1753, it was the appanage of Najib-ullá, a brother of the Nawáb Muhammad Alí, whom English support had placed upon the throne. In that year, a military adventurer, named Muhammad Komal, drove Najib-ullá out of Nellore, and threatened to sack the treasures of the Tripatti Pagoda, which had been pledged to the English. Muhammad Komal repulsed the first detachment that was sent against him from Madras; but shortly afterwards he was defeated and taken prisoner, though with the loss of the English officer in command. Nellore was the scene of a more serious affair in 1757, when Najib-ullá himself rebelled against the authority of his brother, the Nawáb. An army of 10,000 men was marched against him, including a contingent under the command of Colonel Forde, which consisted of 100 Europeans, 56 Kaffirs (*sic* in Orme), 300 Sepoys, 1 18-pounder, 3 6-pounders, and a howitzer. Najib-ullá left the town of Nellore to be defended by a garrison of 3000 men, assisted by 20 Frenchmen from Masulipatam. After a few days' bombardment from the artillery, a breach was made in the mud wall, which Colonel Forde thought practicable; but the storming party, composed of the entire English contingent, was repulsed with loss, and Colonel Forde was shortly afterwards recalled to Madras. Najib-ullá remained in arms through the following year, and played off the Marhattás and Basálat Jang against the English. At last, in the beginning of 1759, when he heard that the French besieging army under Lally had been compelled

to withdraw from before Madras, he sent in his submission, and was reappointed Governor of the District, at an annual tribute of 30,000 pagodas. He sealed this compact by putting to death his French allies. During the wars with Haidar Alí, Nellore to a great extent escaped the general devastation. In 1790, on the breaking out of the war with Tipú, the English resolved to undertake the direct management of the revenues of the Karnatic, which had long been pledged to them by the Nawáb. Mr. Dighton was appointed the first Collector of Nellore, and Mr. Erskine of Ongole. At the conclusion of peace with Tipú in 1792, the administration was restored to the Nawáb; but it was permanently assumed by the British in 1801. Since that date, the only difficulties to be encountered have arisen from the intricacies of the native revenue system, and from periodical visitations of drought.

Population.—In 1852, the population of the District was returned at 935,690 persons, on an area of 7930 square miles. In 1862, the number was 999,254, on an area of 8752 square miles, showing an average density of 134 persons per square mile. The regular Census of 1871 was the first conducted on accurate principles. It revealed a total of 1,376,811 inhabitants, dwelling in 2174 villages or townships and in 253,666 houses. The total area of the District was taken at 8462 square miles. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 163; persons per village, 633; persons per house, 5·43; villages per square mile, 0·26; houses per square mile, 30. Classified according to sex, there were 707,392 males and 669,419 females; proportion of males, 51 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12—248,362 boys and 213,811 girls; total children, 462,173, or 34 per cent. of the population. The religious division of the people is as follows:—Hindus, 1,308,014, or 95 per cent.; Muhammadans, 65,670, or 4·7 per cent.; Christians, 2991; 'others,' 136. The Christians are further subdivided into 101 Europeans, 237 Eurasians, and 2653 native converts. Four Christian missions are established in the District—(1) the Roman Catholic Mission, which has a little chapel, built in 1801, with an endowment from land of about £37 a year; (2) the American Baptist Mission, which dates from 1840, and has 3 stations; (3) the school at Nellore town for both boys and girls, made over to the Free Church of Scotland Mission in 1848; and (4) the Hermansburg Lutheran Mission, founded in 1865, which now possesses 8 stations, with 11 missionaries from Germany. Among the wild or aboriginal tribes of Nellore, the Yanadis are the most numerous. They are to be found in all parts of the District, except in the extreme north; but the little colony in the island of Sriharikota has attracted special interest. In 1835, when this island first came into the possession of Government, the Yanadis were found in the most degraded state of savagery. A Government

agency was established, where each individual is registered; depôts were opened for the sale of their jungle produce, in exchange for which they receive a regular allowance of food and clothing; a schoolmaster was sent to them in 1857, who has usually about 60 pupils in attendance. The result of these measures of active civilisation seem to be fairly successful; but the Yanadis still live in the jungles, and refuse to cultivate the soil or rear cattle. They are a Telugu-speaking race, who have adopted Hindu practices to a considerable extent; but they worship their own indigenous demons, and bury their dead. Other wandering tribes are the Yerukálas, a race of Tamil origin, who live by selling jungle produce and carrying salt and grain on their bullocks and asses; and the Sukalis or Lambadis, who speak a Marhattá dialect, and also support themselves as carriers; the Chinchus and the Dommaras.

The only municipality in the District is NELLORE TOWN, with a population (1871) of 29,458 persons. In 1876-77, the total municipal income was £2726, of which £1594 was derived from taxation; incidence of taxation, 1s. 9¾d. per head. ONGOLE (Vangaolu) has 7392 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—As has been already stated, only about one-half of the total area of the District is under cultivation. The soil in many parts is poor and rocky; the annual rainfall is scanty, and liable to periodical failure; the means of irrigation are insufficient. In the south and east, and especially in the neighbourhood of Nellore town, rice forms the staple crop, being grown wherever artificial irrigation is available; but dry crops predominate along the western border and in the north. The harvest seasons depend upon the two monsoons, both of which contribute to the rainfall of the District, the south-west monsoon being most felt in the south, and the north-east monsoon in the north. There are therefore two harvests in the year — the *punas* or *mudaru*, sown under the early monsoon from June to September, and reaped between December and March; and the *paira*, sown under the late monsoon from October to January, and reaped between February and April. The *mudaru* comprises the greater variety of crops, but the *paira* covers the larger area.

The following statistics for the *fasli* year 1280 (1870-71) exhibit the agricultural condition of the District from the fiscal point of view. Excluding the *zamíndárí* estates, concerning which no statistics are available, the area of the Government villages amounted to 4188 square miles, or about one-half the total area of the District. Of this, only 1103 square miles, or somewhat over a fourth, were assessed for revenue, leaving 1179 square miles of cultivable and 1906 square miles of uncultivable waste. The area actually taken up for cultivation, as opposed to the occupied area, amounted to 799,658 acres, of which 177,524 acres, or 22 per cent., were irrigated from Government works.

The total assessment, levied on the occupied area, was £181,147, being at the average rate of 3s. 9d. per cultivated acre. The area under crops (including twice counted lands from which two crops are taken in the year) was 961,432 acres, of which 679,368 acres, or 71 per cent., were occupied by food grains. The area under each of the principal crops is thus given in detail:—Rice, 179,596 acres; *cholam* or *jonna*, 262,796; *ragi*, 32,408; *varagu* or *allu*, 63,290; *kambu* or *sujjalu*, 53,820; *varigulu*, 77,195; oil-seeds, 35,515; indigo, 42,453; tobacco, 2053; chillies, 2827; cheyroot and other dyes, 136 acres. In the same year (1870-71), the average rates of rent per acre for land suited for the various crops was returned as follows:—Rice, 11s. 8d.; inferior grains, 4s. 4d.; indigo, 6s. 3d.; cotton, 2s. 8d. The average produce per acre was—rice, 2183 lbs.; inferior grains, 920 lbs.; indigo, 35 lbs.; cotton, 82 lbs. The average prices of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. were—rice, £1, 2s. 4d.; inferior food grains, 11s. 5d.; indigo, £15, 0s. 7d.; cotton, £2, 5s. 8d. The daily rates of wages were—for skilled labour, 5d.; for unskilled labour, 2½d.

The *irrigation* of Nellore District is not comprehended under a single system. The chief work is the anicut (*anakatte*) across the Pennair river near Nellore town, constructed in 1854, to provide irrigation for the lands lying on the south bank. This anicut was originally 527 yards in length, extending across one-third of the normal width of the river-bed. But during the flood of 1874, the water rose more than 18 feet above the crest; and an extension to the length of 677 yards is now in course of construction. In 1870-71, the total amount of capital expended on this undertaking had been £75,380; the gross income in that year was £10,025, which, after deducting cost of repairs, etc., and interest on capital at the rate of 5 per cent., left a net profit of £2188. The other Government irrigation works comprise 665 tanks, 84 river channels, 25 spring channels, 83 anicuts, and 671 wells. In the year 1876-77, the total amount expended by Government on irrigation was £17,789; the irrigated area was returned at 182,885 acres, yielding an assessment of £39,817. In addition, irrigation is everywhere conducted on private account, chiefly from wells, tanks, and spring channels.

Cattle.—Nellore is famous for its breed of cattle, which are largely exported to neighbouring Districts. Historically, it is said that the farmers devoted themselves to cattle-breeding, in despair of obtaining remunerative returns from agriculture. The Nellore bullocks are found in greatest perfection in the northern *táluks* bordering on Kistna District. The value of a good bull ranges from £7 to £20. The interest of well-to-do farmers in cattle-breeding has been greatly stimulated by an annual cattle show held at the village of Addanki in January. This show was founded in 1859, and its conspicuous success

is to be attributed to the personal attention of Mr. Dykes, who was for many years Collector of the District. In 1871, prizes were offered for cattle, ponies, sheep, agricultural products, and agricultural implements, to the aggregate value of £214. The first prize for full-grown bulls was £7, 10s. In 1875-76, the total number of cattle in the District was returned at 370,000. They suffered severely from the recent drought, which in the first year of its incidence is said to have caused no fewer than 60,000 deaths. Sheep, chiefly found in the barren *táluks* in the west, numbered 410,000 in 1875-76.

Natural Calamities.—Nellore, with a scanty rainfall and inadequate means of irrigation, has always been exposed to the calamities of nature. Drought is the most common and also the most terrible disaster, but floods of the Pennair river and storms on the seaboard also contribute to depress agriculture. The years of actual famine since the annexation in 1801, were 1806-7, 1829-30, 1832-33, 1836-37, and 1876-78. In 1804, 1852, and 1874, sudden inundations of the Pennair caused wide-spread damage; and destructive storms are recorded in 1820 and 1857. The recent famine of 1876-78 was felt in Nellore with special severity, for the District had scarcely recovered from the floods of 1874. There was an almost entire failure of crops except in irrigated lands. The only tracts which realized any harvest were the northern *táluks* of Ongole, the *zamíndárí* of Venkatagiri, and a few favoured villages along the sea-coast and in the south. By March 1877, no less than 37 per cent. of the cultivated land was thrown out of cultivation. At the same date, the area under indigo had decreased from 57,000 to 20,000 acres, and 60,000 cattle had perished. In August of that year, 191,502 persons were in receipt of relief, or 13·92 per cent. of the total population. The distress was aggravated by the absence of all railway communication.

Manufactures and Trade.—In former times, Nellore was celebrated for its textile fabrics. A speciality was the weaving of 'blue *salampores*,' which found a ready market among the negroes in the West Indies. No cotton goods are now exported, but spinning and weaving for local consumption is still carried on in many villages. The total number of looms in 1870 was returned at 14,729, in 1408 towns and villages; their estimated consumption was 63,000 lbs. of foreign and 1,262,000 lbs. of country thread; the total value of their produce was £93,000. At the village of Kovúr, near Nellore town, fine shirtings, pocket-handkerchiefs, and muslins suitable for ladies' dresses, can still be obtained to order. Other industries are the weaving of hempen cloth, dyeing, the making of vessels of brass, copper, and bell-metal; the carving of images, pillars, and cart-wheels from stone; mat-making and boat-building.

The trade of the District has considerably decreased since the time

before the opening of the railway, when it formed the high-road between the interior and the sea-coast. In those days the cotton of Cuddapah and Karnúl (Kurnool) was brought down on pack-bullocks to be exchanged for the salt of Nellore. The sea-borne trade is now almost entirely carried on in coasting craft, though formerly large ships used to carry salt to Bengal. In 1869-70, the total value of the exports amounted to £63,000—the chief items being grain, £41,000; seeds, £11,000; treasure, £4000: the imports were valued at £80,000—chiefly treasure, £66,000; grain, £12,000. The two principal ports are Kottapatam and Itamukkula, both in the extreme north of the District. The indigo, which is manufactured almost entirely by natives, in accordance with what is known as the Bengal system, is sent by land to Madras to the amount of about 800,000 lbs. a year. In recent years, there has been a considerable decrease in the manufacture of salt, owing to the circumstance that the foreign demand is now supplied from other quarters. In 1870-71, the total quantity made was 597,000 *maunds*, or 21,000 tons, valued at £118,000; of which none was exported by sea, but 312,000 *maunds*, or 11,000 tons, was despatched inland. As recently as 1860-61, the quantity exported by sea was 190,000 *maunds*, or 7000 tons, and the quantity sent inland was 518,000 *maunds*, or 18,000 tons.

There is no railway in the District. The chief means of communication is the Great Northern Trunk Road, which runs along the coast to the Bengal frontier. At Nellore town it sends out two branches, to Cuddapah and Cumbum (Kambham); and at Ongole, the route to Haidarábád branches off. A new road has recently been opened from Nellore town to the coast at Krishnapatam, which will be of great utility for the salt traffic. In 1870-71, the total length of first and second class roads in the District was 422 miles, maintained at a cost of £4531. The East Coast or Buckingham Canal, taken through Lake Pulikat, has long afforded inland navigation between the frontier of the District and Madras. This canal has recently been extended northwards from Durgaráyapatam to Krishnapatam, so as to be navigable during nine months of the year; and it is hoped at some future date to connect it with the canal system at the mouth of the Kistna.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the total net revenue of Nellore District amounted to £357,841, derived from the following principal sources:—Land, £210,561; salt, £108,023; excise, £10,036; income tax, £9814; stamps, £4144. The total expenditure in the same year was £92,676, under the following chief heads:—Civil establishment, etc., £10,516; justice, £10,169; police, £14,561; public works, £32,820. The District was first ceded to the British in 1801; and for the ten years ending 1810, the gross revenue averaged £181,572, so that it has approximately doubled since that time. The land revenue assess-

ment has only risen from £158,799 to £210,561 within the same period.

In 1870-71, the police force numbered 1279 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £15,017, of which £500 came from local funds. These figures show 1 policeman to every 7 square miles and every 1077 of the population, the cost being £1, 15s. 6d. per square mile, and 2¾d. per head of population. In the same year, the number of persons brought to trial was 118, of whom 93, or 79 per cent., were convicted, being 1 person convicted of some offence or other to every 14,804 of the population. The Nellore jail contained in 1870-71 a daily average number of 165 prisoners, being 1 prisoner always in jail to every 8344 of the population. The cost of the jail was £1527, or £9, 4s. 3d. per prisoner. A net profit of £22 was derived from jail manufactures.

The educational statistics for 1870-71 show a total of 246 schools, attended by 5178 pupils. By 1876-77, the number of schools had increased to 387, and the number of pupils to 7297, being 1 school to every 21·8 square miles, and 5·2 pupils to every thousand of the population. The chief educational institutions are the Government higher-class school, with 286 pupils in 1876-77, of whom 22 passed the matriculation examination of the Madras University; and the school under the management of the Free Church Mission, assisted by a grant-in-aid, which matriculated 8 students in the same year. The Rájá of Venkatagiri supports 2 Anglo-vernacular schools, one of which, at Náyadupet, has endowments for boarders. The language spoken in Nellore is Telugu; and local tradition claims for the District that it is the headquarters of Telugu literature. A list is enumerated of 33 Nellore poets, including some who are still alive. The petty chieftains, and especially the Rájá of Venkatagiri, have always prided themselves upon their patronage of letters; and some of them possess old libraries. The most famous Nellore authors are Thikana Somayajulu, who translated the *Mahábhárata* from Sanskrit into Telugu, and is said to have flourished in the 12th century; Molla, a poetess contemporary with the preceding, who translated the *Rámáyana;* and Alasani Peddana, the poet-laureate at the court of Rájá Krishna Deva-ráyalu (1509-30), whose reign is regarded as the Augustan era of Telugu poetry. There is one printing-press in the District, at which the *District Gazette* is published weekly in English and Telugu. A reading-room and library was established at Nellore town in 1863.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Nellore is generally regarded as dry and salubrious, being subject to no sudden changes of temperature. The most trying season for Europeans is the period from April to June, when a westerly wind blows hot and sand-laden from the inland plateau. The monthly temperature varies from about 74° F. in December to 90°

in May. The District receives its rainfall from both the north-east and the south-west monsoons, the former predominating in the north, and the latter in the south. The average annual rainfall is returned at 33·47 inches, of which 21·13 inches are brought by the north-east or early, and 12·34 inches by the south-west or late, monsoon. The rainy months are June and July, October, November, and December. In the famine year of 1876-77, both monsoons failed; and the total rainfall amounted to only 12·32 inches, or a deficiency of 21·15 inches.

The principal diseases are intermittent fever of a mild type, chronic rheumatism, leprosy, elephantiasis or 'Cochin-leg,' the curious affection of the foot known as Morbus entophyticus pedis, cancer of the face, and guinea-worm. Diarrhœa and dysentery are common, and both cholera and small-pox often make their appearance in an epidemic form. The dispensary at Nellore town was attended in 1876-77 by 1359 in-door and 11,484 out-door patients.

Nellore (*Nellúru; Nelli-uru*, the village of the *nelli* tree, *Phyllanthus emblica*).—Chief town of Nellore District, Madras; situated in lat. 14° 26′ 38″ N., long. 80° 1′ 27″ E., on the right bank of the Pennair, 107 miles north of Madras. Pop. (1871), 29,922; number of houses, 6788. About five-sixths of the population are Hindus, and the number of Musalmáns is about 5000. Nellore is a municipality, founded in 1866, but now constituted under Act III. of 1871. The municipal committee consists of 22 members, of whom 17 are natives. In 1876-77, the total municipal income amounted to £3649, including a balance of £186; the amount derived from taxation was £1970, showing an incidence of 1s. 0¾d. per head of population (29,922) within municipal limits.

Nellore town, which is traditionally said to be situated in the famous wilderness *Dandaka Aranyam*, is of considerable antiquity. Its ancient name was *Sinhapur* ('lion city'); later it was called *Durgametta*, a name which survives in one of its suburbs. It was held by the Venkatagiri *zamíndárs* till the Musalmán period, and in 1750 formed a *faujdárí* of Arcot. In 1752, the town was seized by a freebooter named Muhammad Komal, who was captured and executed twelve months later. Najíb-ullá, the governor, revolted in 1757, and the English forces under Forde assisted in the unsuccessful siege of the town. The Marhattás and the French both visited Nellore in 1758. The latter were received as friends; but on the raising of the siege of Fort Saint George in the same year, Najíb-ullá murdered all the French soldiers in the town save one, and gave in his submission to the English.

In 1787, while a peasant was ploughing near the town, he struck upon the remains of a Hindu temple, beneath which was found a pot containing gold coins. About thirty of these were saved from the melting pot, and they proved to be Roman coins of the 2nd century

A.D., mostly bearing the names of Trajan, Hadrian, and Faustina. Some were beautifully fresh, but others were worn and perforated, as if they had been used as personal ornaments. When the anicut across the Pennair was being constructed, the workmen engaged in excavating a bed of laterite found several coffins, apparently of burnt clay, embedded in quartz. Some of these coffins contained more than one body each; and when first seen, the bodies were in a perfect state of preservation, though they quickly crumbled to dust. There were also found with them spearheads and other implements.

For a native town, Nellore is tolerably clean and airy. The houses are irregularly built, but there are some good streets occupied by the wealthier inhabitants. Since the establishment of the Municipal Commission in 1866, much has been done towards removing the most patent sanitary defects. The houses of the European residents are on the south of the town, along the bank of a large tank, on the farther side of which rises the temple-crowned hill of Narasinha Konda. The offices of the Collector are in the old fort; opposite stands the police office, which was formerly a range of barracks. The hospital, built in 1850 by public subscription and Government grant, is now entirely supported by the munificence of the Rájá of Venkatagiri. Other charitable institutions include the *langarkháná*, or poorhouse for natives, which receives an annual Government grant of £294; and the European Poor Fund, supported by voluntary subscriptions, which distributes about £40 a year in grants to European vagrants. Christ's Church was built in 1854-66 at a total cost for material of £450, convict labour being given by Government. It is in the Gothic style of architecture, with a chancel and two aisles; there are sittings for 128 persons. The old cemetery has about 160 tombs, the oldest of which dates back to 1785. Among the educational establishments are a school for European and Eurasian children; a large boys' school and a girls' school under the charge of the Free Church of Scotland; and schools for boys and girls conducted by the American Baptist Mission. Nellore town is connected with Madras by the Northern Trunk Road, and also by the newly opened Buckingham Canal.

Neo Dhura.—Pass in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, over the Himálayas into Hundes or South-western Thibet; lies in lat. 30° 29′ N., and long. 80° 37′ E., at the head of the Dhauli river. Much frequented by Bhutias of Dharma, who carry on a brisk trade with Hundes by means of pack-sheep and goats. They export grain, broad-cloth, cotton, hardware, and manufactured goods generally, bringing back in return salt, gold dust, borax, and wool. Elevation above sea level, about 15,000 feet.

Neotini.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated on the right bank of the Sái, 2 miles south-west of Mohán. The town is said to have

been founded by a Dikhit, Rájá Rám, who on a hunting expedition saw the spot, and, attracted by its beauty, cut away some of the thin grass that grew there, and founded a town which he called Neotini. An old *díh* in the place is still assigned as the site of his fort. It was held by the Dikhits till the time of Rájá Apre, who was driven out in the time of Mahmúd of Ghazní by an army headed by Míran Muhammad and Zahír-ud-dín, whose descendants still live here. A prosperous little Muhammadan town, with a population in 1869 of 3809 persons, residing in 718 houses. The soil around the town is extremely rich, and well cultivated with crops of *pán* creepers, poppy, vegetables, spices, and medicinal herbs. Government school.

Nepál.—A native kingdom, occupying the southern ranges of the Himálayas, beyond the northern boundary of British India. Nepál, as independent territory, is beyond the strict scope of this book, but some account of it may be expected in the *Imperial Gazetteer of India*. It would be unsuitable, however, that any appearance of official authority should attach to my account of a purely foreign State. To prevent such a misapprehension, I confine myself to materials already before the public. With the kind permission of Messrs. A. & C. Black, I restrict myself to condensing the article on Nepál from the *Encyclopædia Britannica*—the ablest concise account of the country which has yet been made available to the public. A few alterations have been made with a view to bringing up the article to date. The great authority on Nepál is Mr. Brian Houghton Hodgson of the Bengal Civil Service, who was for long Resident at Khatmandu. Mr. Hodgson's works form an inexhaustible treasure-house with regard to the history, ethnology, and languages of the country; its government in the past, and its capabilities in the future. A volume containing a translation by two native Pandits from the *Parbatiyá*, with an introduction by Dr. Daniel Wright, late Residency Surgeon at Khatmandu, was published by the Cambridge University Press in 1877. Sir Joseph Hooker and the brothers Schlagintweit have furnished much valuable collateral information with regard to the Southern Himálayas—the region of which Nepál forms the largest territorial entity.

Boundaries.—On the north, the State of Nepál is continuously bounded by the great mountain-wall of the Himálayas, which separates it from Thibet; on the south, Nepál territory reaches about 20 miles beyond the base of the mountains into the plains, being bounded by the British Districts of Purniah, Bhágalpur, Darbhanga, Muzaffarpur, Champáran, and Gorakhpur; on the east, it is bounded by Dárjíling District and the native principality of Sikkim, which extends to the Chinese frontier. The Province of Oudh forms the boundary on the south-west, and the District of Kumáun on the west. The above limits, however, include a territory much larger than that to which the name of Nepál properly

belongs, being made up of conquests gained by the dominant race of Gúrkhas within the last century from a variety of petty hill States. This extended dominion is included between 27° and 31° of N. lat., and in extreme length may be estimated at 460 miles, by 150 miles in breadth. The total area has been estimated at 54,000 square miles, and the population (very vaguely) at about 2,000,000. The following are the Districts into which this territory is divided:—

1. Nepál Proper.
2. Country of the 24 Rájás.
3. Country of the 22 Rájás.
4. Makwánpur.
5. Kirauts.
6. Khatang.
7. Chhayanpur.
8. Saptári.
9. Morang.

Aspect of the Country.—Nepál is extremely diversified in its surface. Among its lofty summits is Mount Everest, the highest known peak in the world (29,002 feet), while the whole range which forms its northern boundary rises to the level of perpetual snow. These high mountains generally decline into lower hills, separated from each other by rich valleys, still considerably above the level of the plains; while the lowest belt of the Nepál dominions forms part of the great plain of Hindustán. Immediately to the north of this flat belt comes a region of nearly the same width, consisting of small hills, which rise gradually towards the north, and are watered by many streams from the loftier mountains with which these hills gradually unite. The hills are covered with forests. On the lower elevations are found *sál* trees, which are not surpassed in any country, either for straightness and size, or for strength and durability. Higher up there is a variety of other trees, and on the northern hills many pines, and an abundance of Mimosa, from which the *catechu* of commerce is obtained; also oak, walnut and chestnut, hornbeam, Weymouth pine, and common spruce, for the most part of little economical value, owing to the inaccessible nature of the country. The breadth of the mountainous belt immediately north and east of Khatmandu is estimated at from 30 to 40 miles. This is a very elevated region, consisting of mountain heaped upon mountain to a great height; so that in winter their summits are for a short time covered with snow, and snow even falls sometimes in the valley below. Hoar-frost also very often covers the ground; but although the cold for three or four months is occasionally severe enough to freeze the tanks and pools of standing water, the rivers are never frozen. Between the mountains are narrow valleys from 3000 to 6000 feet above the plains of Bengal. The average height of the valley of Khatmandu, measured by the barometer, is about 4000 feet. It is nearly of an oval figure; its greatest length from north to south being 12 miles, and its width from east to west 9 miles. Though it scarcely lies in a higher latitude than 27° 30′, yet it enjoys nearly the

same climate as the south of Europe. The average temperature in summer varies from 81° to 84° F. At sunrise, it was commonly between 50° and 54°; and at nine in the evening, it generally fluctuated from 62° to 66°. The temperature varies necessarily with the elevation of the ground; so that by ascending the adjacent mountains, the heat of Bengal may in the course of a few days be exchanged for the cold of Siberia.

Produce.—The products also vary with the climate. In some parts rattans and bamboos, both of enormous dimensions, are seen, while other tracts produce only oaks and pines. In several valleys the pine-apple and sugar-cane ripen, whilst others yield only barley, millet, and similar grains. Kirkpatrick, however, from the spontaneous productions which he saw on the spot—namely, the peach, the raspberry, the walnut, the mulberry, and others—thought that all the fruits and esculent vegetables of England might with proper attention be successfully raised in the mountain valleys of Nepál. In the warmer valleys, the pine-apple is uncommonly fine; as also the orange, which ripens in winter. The abundant rains, if they spoil the fruits, are very favourable to the produce of grain; and wherever the land can be levelled into terraces, however narrow, it is well adapted for transplanted rice, which ripens after the rains have ceased. In some parts the same land bears a winter crop of wheat and barley. Where the land is too steep for terraces, it is generally cultivated after fallow with the hoe, and produces rice sown broadcast, maize, cotton, three kinds of pulse, a kind of mustard, *manjít* or Indian madder, wheat, barley, and sugar-cane. Tobacco is an article of general cultivation, and it yields a fine quality of leaf. One of the great staples of agriculture in the mountainous regions is a large species of cardamom; and ginger is likewise a valuable product in the country between Nepál proper and the Káli river, though rice is everywhere the main dependence of the farmer. Various dry rices are cultivated in Nepál, under the general name of *ghya*, some of which, so far from needing hot weather to bring them to maturity, are actually raised in situations exposed to falls of snow; whilst others do not require, as in Bengal, to be flooded, but flourish in the driest and loftiest spots. The spontaneous productions of this fertile soil include several edible roots and herbs, which form a considerable part of the sustenance of the poorer inhabitants. Several medicinal plants are known; and a rich variety of dyes is procured from bitter or aromatic woods, which are held in great estimation. The *jía* is a very curious plant, from the expressed leaves of which is produced a juice called *cherris*, which is a potent narcotic, and possesses very valuable qualities, burning with a flame as bright as that of the purest resin. Its leaves are fabricated into a species of hemp, from which the Newars manufacture coarse linen, and likewise a very strong kind of sackcloth.

Animals.—The mountain pasture, though not so good as in the low country, supports numerous flocks of sheep, which migrate with the seasons, in winter to the lower valleys, and in summer to the Alpine heights, where they feed upon the herbage of those extensive tracts which lie in the neighbourhood of perpetual snow. The sheep in these altitudes are of considerable size, and have fine wool. In the great forest which forms the southern frontier of Nepál, throughout its whole extent from Srínagar to the Tísta (Teesta), wild animals abound. Elephants are found here in great numbers, and yield a considerable revenue to the Nepál Government. About 200 or 300 of these animals are caught annually; but most of them being very young, and not above 7½ feet in height, they are not of great value. The rhinoceros, tiger, and leopard also abound. The animal known in Bengal by the name of the Nepál dog, is brought from Upper and Lower Thibet, of which it is a native. Several handsome birds are found in the mountainous regions, particularly pheasants (*Manál*, Argus, *Damphyra*) of golden and spotted plumage (Lophophorus Impeyanus, Ceriornis Satyra, Melegris Satyra). The *chikor*, a species of partridge, is well known to Europeans in India.

Minerals.—The stones and ores, which have been collected, indicate the existence of a variety of minerals in the mountains of Nepál. Copper is found quite near the surface of the earth, the ore being dug from open trenches, so that the work is entirely stopped by the rainy season. These ores are found in several varieties, and are said to be unusually rich in metal. Iron-ore is also found near the surface, and is not surpassed in purity by that of any other country. Sulphur is likewise abundant, and procured in great quantities. Stone is found in great variety, particularly jasper and marble; but the houses are universally built of brick, because the use of stone is impracticable in a country where the roads do not admit of wheel-carriages, and where there is no navigation. A considerable mass of rock-crystal is said to exist near Gúrkha, and limestone as well as slate abounds everywhere; yet there are no limekilns in the country, the only cement employed being mud, which, the natives assert, answers better in their humid climate than mortar.

Population.—The numerous valleys interspersed throughout the mountains of Nepál are inhabited by a variety of races. The aboriginal inhabitants appear, from their physiognomy, to be of Tartar or Chinese origin, bearing no resemblance to the Hindus either in features, religion, or manners. The period when the mountainous regions were first invaded by the Hindus is uncertain; but, according to the most authentic traditions, the date is supposed to have been about the 14th century. In the eastern part of the country, the aboriginal tribes still remain; and until the predominance of the Gúrkhas, they enjoyed unmolested

their customs and religion. But west of the Káli river, the case is different, almost all the inhabitants claiming a descent from Hindu colonists. They accordingly consist principally of the two superior classes of Hindus, Bráhmans and Kshattriyas, with their various subdivisions.

East of the Káli, the tribes which possessed the country were chiefly —(1) Magars, who occupied the lower hills in the western parts, and are at present enlisted by the Gúrkha sovereigns, composing a great majority of their troops; (2) the Gurungs, a pastoral tribe; (3) the Jariyas; (4) the Newars, an industrious people, following agriculture and commerce, and more advanced in the mechanical arts than the other mountain tribes; (5) the Dhenwárs and Mhanjís, the husbandmen and fishers of the western Districts; (6) the Bhutias; (7) the Bhanras, a sept which branched off from the Newars. To the eastward, some Districts of the Nepál dominions are inhabited by tribes, such as the Limbuas and Nagarkutis, of whom little more is known than the names.

With regard to the number of inhabitants within the bounds of Nepál, we possess no data for anything like an accurate estimate. The total population is vaguely estimated at about 2,000,000.

The Buddhist faith, which now lingers in India only under the graceful but retiring form of Jainism, still continues as a genuinely popular religion in Nepál. The number of shrines is estimated at nearly 3000, and the religious festivals are proportionately frequent. To the stranger, indeed, they seem never-ending, and 'the marvel is,' to quote the words of Dr. Wright, 'when the people find time to earn their livelihood.'

Land is held by various tenures. The Rájá's immediate estates are chiefly situated in the Gúrkha territory, though there is hardly any portion of the Gúrkha conquests in which the prince has not appropriated land to his own use. Some of these lands are occupied by husbandmen, who receive a share of the produce; others are tilled by the neighbouring villagers, who are obliged to dedicate a certain number of days in the year to this service. From this source the Rájá draws all the supplies necessary for the support of his household. The Bráhmans also possess lands, the title to which they receive by royal investiture. These grants are rent-free, saleable, and hereditary; but they may nevertheless be forfeited for certain crimes. Another tenure, found chiefly among the Newars, is the payment of a considerable fine when the original titles are renewed on the accession of each prince. Other lands pay a rent to the crown, or to the *jágírdár* (proprietor), in proportion to their produce.

Military Force.—The whole population of Nepál is liable to military service in times of public danger, though they are not regularly trained to arms. There is also a standing army dispersed over the country,

besides a large force always stationed in the capital, amounting to 30,000 or 35,000 men. These troops are regularly trained, disciplined, and officered after the manner of European troops; and they likewise affect the European exercise, dress, and arms.

Revenue.—The public revenue is derived from land rents, customs, fines of various sorts, and mines. Annual presents are made by the *subahs* or farmers, and by every one who approaches the court; and a sort of arbitrary income tax is levied from all ranks, even the sacred order, who possess free lands, not being exempted. According to Colonel Kirkpatrick, who visited the country in 1792, and who derived his information from good authority, the revenue actually remitted to Khatmandu never exceeded 30 *lákhs* of rupees (£300,000), and it sometimes fell to 25 *lákhs.*

Commerce.—The external trade of Nepál falls under two heads—that which is carried on across the Himálayas with Thibet, and that which is conducted along the extensive line of the British frontier. Of the extent of the former trade, very little is positively known. The chief route runs north-east from Khatmandu, and, following up a tributary of the Kosi, passes the frontier station of Kuti or Nilam at an elevation of about 14,000 feet above sea level. Another route, also starting from Khatmandu, follows the main stream of the Gandak, crosses the frontier near the station of Kirong (9000 feet), and ultimately reaches the Sangpu river at Tadum. This was the path adopted by Captain Montgomerie's native explorer in 1866. Both these routes are extremely difficult. The only beasts of burthen available are sheep and goats; and practically everything but grain and salt is carried by men and women. The sheep used are a peculiar breed of large size, with four horns. The principal imports from Thibet are *pashmina* or shawl wool, coarse woollen cloth, salt, borax, musk, yak-tails or *chauris*, yellow arsenic, quick-silver, gold-dust, antimony, *manjít* or madder, *charas* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp), various medicinal drugs and dried fruits. The majority of these articles pass through Nepál on their way to British territory. The exports into Thibet from Nepál include metal utensils of copper, bell-metal, and iron, manufactured by the Newars; European piece-goods and hardware, Indian cotton goods, spices, tobacco, betel-nut and betel-leaf, metals, and precious stones.

The trade with India is conducted at innumerable marts along the frontier line of 700 miles. The commercial policy of the Nepál *darbár* appears to consist in levying on every article duties which, though high, are not intended to be protective. At every mart and on every trade route a toll station is established; and the tolls are let by auction to a *thikádár* or farmer. A few articles, such as timber, ivory, copper *pice*, musk, cardamoms, and tobacco, are Government monopolies,

which are usually granted to persons in favour at court. Trade in all other articles is free, subject to the payment of duties both on export and import. These duties differ greatly at different places; but it is said that the local tariff is always well known to the parties concerned, and is not oppressively varied. On the main route to Khatmandu, duties are levied according to an *ad valorem* percentage, which is said not to have varied during the last forty years. The more common system is to charge a certain sum by weight, by load, or by number, according to the character of the goods. The principal route for through traffic is that which runs through the British District of Champáran, with Khatmandu and Patná for its two points of terminus. Starting from the military cantonment of Sagauli, this route crosses the frontier near Ráksúl, and then proceeds through Samrabasa, Hataura, Bhimphedi, and Thankot to Khatmandu; the total length being about 85 miles. Within British territory, this is a good fair-weather road, which was much improved as a relief work during the scarcity of 1873-74. Beyond the frontier, it degenerates into a mere cart-track. As far as Bhimphedi (60 miles), light carts can be taken; but as a matter of fact, the greater part of the traffic is conveyed to Bhimphedi on pack-bullocks and ponies. Beyond Bhimphedi, coolies are the only means of carriage available. Though a portion of the road is here fit for driving, there is hardly a cart to be found in the whole valley of Khatmandu. What has been said of this route applies to the other means of communication with Nepál. There is no made road in the country, but carts and pack-bullocks from British territory freely pass to and fro during the dry season. The rivers are only used for floating down timber.

The principal articles of export from Nepál are the following:—Rice and inferior grains, oil-seeds, *ghí* or clarified butter, ponies, cattle, falcons for hawking, *mainás* as cage-birds, timber, opium, musk, *chireta*, borax, madder, turpentine, catechu or cutch, jute, hides, and furs, dried ginger, cardamoms, red chillies, turmeric, and *chauris* or yak-tails. The chief imports are—raw cotton, cotton twist, and cotton piece-goods (both native and European), woollen cloth, shawls, rugs, flannel, silk, brocade, embroidery, sugar, spices, indigo, tobacco, betel-nut, vermilion, lac, oils, salt, a little fine rice, buffaloes, sheep and goats, sheet copper, copper and brass ornaments, beads, mirrors, precious stones, guns and gunpowder for sporting purposes, tea from Kumáun and Dárjíling. Of the aggregate value of this trade, it is impossible to form even an approximate estimate. Elaborate statistics have recently been compiled on the frontiers of Bengal, and of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; but with a trade that passes by so many channels, and consists in many cases of articles of small bulk and high value, registration becomes practically impossible. The following figures are only quoted

to afford some indication of the general character of the transactions. In the year 1877-78, the total imports into Nepál from Bengal were valued at £455,000, the chief items being—European piece-goods, £153,000; Indian piece-goods, £19,000; salt, £32,000; cattle, £52,000; sugar, £16,000; raw cotton, £7000; brass and copper, £22,000. The total exports into Bengal were valued at £703,000, chiefly consisting of food grains, oil-seeds, cattle, and timber. By weight, the total exports of rice and paddy amounted to nearly 35,000 tons, and of oil-seeds to nearly 13,000 tons. The piece-goods imported were almost entirely registered in Champáran District. In the same year, the total imports into Nepál from the North-Western Provinces and Oudh were valued at £176,000, chiefly piece-goods, salt, metals, and sugar. The total exports from the North-Western Provinces and Oudh were valued at £352,000, including food grains to the aggregate weight of nearly 22,000 tons. The addition of these figures gives a grand total of £1,686,000 for the registered trade of Nepál both ways.

Coinage and Currency.—The current silver coin in Nepál is the *mohar*, two of which go to the Mohri rupee. The intrinsic value of the *mohar* is 6 *annas* 8 *pies* of British Indian currency. The Mohri rupee is not an actual coin, but merely a matter of account, its minor denominations being as follows:—4 *dams* = 1 *pice*; 4 *pice* = 1 *ánná*; 16 *ánnás* = 1 Mohri rupee. Three different kinds of copper *pice* are coined, all of which, as well as the silver *mohar*, circulate freely in British territory. Along the central tract from Bahráich to Champáran, the current coin of exchange is the *Bhútwaliya* or *Gorakhpurí pice*, a square lump of purified copper, roughly cut by hand, with an apology for a stamp; 75 of these coins go to the Indian rupee, *i.e.* they stand to the Indian *pice* as 75 to 72; but they are so popular with the people, that traders cannot pass Indian *pice* into Nepál, except at the rate of 9 *pice* for 2 *ánnás*, or a discount of 1 in 8. These *Bhútwaliya pice* are made at Tensan, in the Pálpa District of Nepál. In the extreme east and north-east, the common coin is the black or *Lohiya pice*, of which 107 go to the Indian rupee. These are of no better shape or manufacture than the *Bhútwaliya pice*, and they are of less value, owing to the large admixture of iron. There are several mints for their production in the eastern hills, the best known being that of Khika Maccha. They are commonly met with in North Behar, from Champáran to Purniah. In the valley of Khatmandu, the thin or new *pice*, introduced in 1865, have now nearly driven the *Lohiya pice* out of circulation. They are circular, made by machinery, and fairly well stamped. Their value is 117 to the Indian rupee. According to a report by Mr. Girdlestone, the British Resident at the Nepál *darbár*, the average annual out-turn of all the Nepál mints during the four years ending 1875-76 was as follows, in terms of Mohri rupees:—

Silver *mohars*, Rs. 214,000; *Bhútwaliya pice*, Rs. 186,000; *Lohiya pice*, Rs. 43,000; new *pice*, Rs. 123,000. The coinage of silver used formerly to be much larger than it is now; but the Indian rupee has gradually expelled the native *mohar* from the entire south of the country. Indian currency notes are in slight demand along the border. In Khatmandu, they are highly prized as a means of remittance, usually fetching a premium varying from 3 to 5 per cent. Formerly the bills of the great trading firm of Dharm Náráyan were bought up at higher prices even than currency notes. This firm used to act as State bankers, and had corresponding houses at Patná, Benares, Cawnpore, and Calcutta; but it suspended payment in 1873.

Manufactures.—The Newars are almost the only artisans in Nepál. The Newar women, as well as the men of the hill tribe of Magars, weave two sorts of cotton cloth, partly for home use and partly for exportation. Those who are not very poor wear woollen blankets, which are manufactured by the Bhutias, who wear nothing else. The dress of the higher ranks is not manufactured at home, but is imported; it consists of Chinese silks, shawls, muslins, and calicoes. European broadcloth is worn by the military alone. The Newars are skilful workers in iron, copper, brass, and bell-metal; the chief seats of industry being Lalita, Pátan, and Bhatgáon. One bell manufactured at this last place measured 5 feet in diameter. The Thibet bells are superior to those of Nepál, though a great many bell-metal vessels of Nepál manufacture are exported to Thibet, along with those of brass and copper. The Newars are particularly ingenious in carpentry; but it is remarkable that they never use a saw, dividing their wood, of whatever size, by a chisel and mallet. They are skilful in gilding; and they manufacture at Bhatgáon, from the bark of a shrub, a very strong paper, remarkably well suited for packages. They distil spirits from rice and other grains, and also prepare a fermented liquor from wheat, *mahua*, rice, etc., which they call *jhur*. It is made somewhat in the manner of malt liquor, but is more intoxicating.

History.—The early history of Nepál, like that of most eastern countries, is buried under a mass of fable. The inhabitants exhibit a list of princes for several thousand years back, which is given in Colonel Kirkpatrick's work, but without any evidence of its authenticity. We know, however, that Nepál was the scene of important revolutions, though it was never subjugated by the Delhi Emperors, or by any of the other great Asiatic conquerors. It is said to have been completely subdued in 1323 A.D., by Hari Sinh, one of the princes of Oudh, who had been driven out of his own possessions by the Patháns. But from that period there exists no accurate information respecting the dynasties which ruled during the interval, or the race of princes who governed Nepál at the time of the Gúrkha conquest. Ranjít Mall was

the last of the Surya-bansi race, or Children of the Sun, that reigned in Nepál. He formed an alliance with Prithwi Náráyan, which ended in the loss of his dominions, of which he was stript by his ally in the Newar year 890 or 888, corresponding to 1768 A.D. He possessed great courage and insatiable ambition, and was indebted for his success in war to his introduction of firelocks and European discipline among his troops. It was in his reign that Captain Kinloch, with a British force, endeavoured to penetrate into Nepál. But from the sickness of the troops, and the difficult nature of the country, the enterprise was abandoned. Prithwi Náráyan died about three years after the final conquest of Nepál, in the year 1771. He left two sons, Sinh Pratáp and Bahádur Sháh. The former of these succeeded to the throne, and conceiving a jealousy of his brother, threw him into prison, whence he was with difficulty released by the interference of one of the spiritual guides of the Gúrkha royal family, on condition that he should live in exile. Sinh Pratáp, after having extended his father's conquests, died in 1775, leaving one son, who was an infant. Bahádur Sháh, on the death of his brother, returned from his exile to Khatmandu; and having placed his nephew on the throne, assumed the office of regent. But the mother of the infant prince, Rájendra Lakshmi, contrived to supplant Bahádur Sháh in the regency, and to secure the person of her rival. Through the mediation, however, of one of the priests, matters were arranged, and Bahádur Sháh was enabled to seize and confine the Rání in his turn. Neglecting, however, to conciliate the chief men of the State, he was again driven into banishment, from which he did not return till the death of the princess, when he reassumed the regency without opposition. In the course of his administration, Palpa, and many other petty States to the westward, Bhot to the north, and Sikkim to the east, were compelled to submit to the rule of the Gúrkhas.

Towards the close of the administration of Warren Hastings, the Gúrkha sovereigns were involved in hostilities with Thibet, and finally with China. The Teshu Láma of Thibet proceeded to Pekin, and died soon after his arrival in that city. His brother, Sumhur Láma, taking advantage of his absence, fled from Lassa to the Rájá of Nepál, carrying along with him a considerable quantity of treasure. His representations so inflamed the avarice of the Nepál Government that they marched a body of troops towards Lassa, and extorted from the Láma a tribute of 3 *lákhs* of rupees. In 1790, they sent a second force, who pillaged the temples, and succeeded in carrying off a large booty, though closely pursued by a Chinese army, and losing 2000 men in their retreat from the severity of the weather. The Emperor of China, as the terrestrial superior of the Lámas, and their worshipper and protector, incensed by these unprovoked aggressions,

despatched an army of 70,000 men against the Nepálese, who were overthrown in repeated battles; and the Chinese army advanced to Noakot, within 26 miles of Khatmandu, and 60 miles from the British frontier of Bengal. A peace was at last concluded, on terms ignominious to the Nepálese, who were compelled to become tributaries to China, and to refund the spoil which they had taken from the Thibet Lámas. The authorities for some of the above incidents are, however, both doubtful and indistinct. It does not appear that the tribute was ever exacted. It was about this period that Lord Cornwallis attempted to conclude a treaty of commerce with the Nepálese; but every proposition of this nature was frustrated by their extreme jealousy.

The queen-regent died in 1786, when the care of the young Rájá devolved entirely on his uncle, Bahádur Sháh, who was accused of encouraging him in his debaucheries, in hopes of bringing him into contempt, and thus securing to himself the supreme authority. In this expectation, however, he was deceived, as the Rájá, in 1795, when he had entered upon his twentieth year, suddenly announced that he had resolved to assume the reins of government. He rendered himself extremely popular during the first year of his reign. But this fair prospect was speedily overcast, and the youth plunged into all the excesses of the most furious despotism and cruelty. He caused his uncle to be arrested, and starved to death in prison. He daily tortured and mutilated his subjects, and beheld their sufferings with savage joy. In his outrages he made no distinction of age or sex. Women of all castes, even those belonging to the sacred order, were subjected to abuse from the vilest characters. In 1797, a son was born to him by a Bráhman widow, who being taken seriously ill next year, and finding her end approaching, reminded the Rájá of the prediction of astrologers, that he would never complete his twenty-fourth year, and entreated him to provide for the unprotected orphan they were about to leave. The Rájá, relying implicitly on the superstitious prophecy, immediately, and in the most solemn manner, before all the chiefs, abdicated the throne in favour of his son, though illegitimate; and an administration was then appointed, over which one of the Ránís was appointed to preside. The abdicated monarch now devoted his whole time to attendance on the favourite widow, who, notwithstanding all his attention, and rich offerings at the different temples, soon afterwards expired. In his affliction he became quite frantic, and perpetrated atrocities, the bare mention of which still causes the Nepálese to shudder. Amongst various enormities, he directed the sacred temple of Bhawáni to be demolished, and the golden idol, which was a venerated object of worship, to be ground to dust; and when the soldiers to whom he had issued the orders demurred at such an act of sacrilege, he commanded boiling oil to be poured on their naked bodies. Nor were any exempt

from his rage. Even the first members of the Government were scourged without mercy, and otherwise tortured. A conspiracy was at last formed against the tyrant, who, finding himself abandoned, fled during the night, and ultimately reached Benares in May 1800.

The presence of the Rájá on British territory seemed to afford a good opportunity for bringing about that closer connection with Nepál which had long been the aim of the Government of India. A treaty of alliance was accordingly concluded between the two States, by Captain W. D. Knox, who was appointed ambassador, and proceeded to Khatmandu in that capacity in 1802. The terms of the treaty were favourable to British interests; the Nepálese being anxious to secure the influence of such powerful neighbours against the faction of the abdicated Rájá, who still contended for his restoration. But whatever advantages were attained by this treaty, were ultimately rendered nugatory by the jealous opposition of the subordinate officers amongst the Nepálese, who were probably instigated by their chiefs, the latter being entirely unable to fulfil the obligations into which they had entered.

The Residency at Khatmandu was withdrawn in 1804. About this time the abdicated monarch, Ráná Bahádur, by the able management of his queen, whom he had always ill treated, was restored to his former authority. But as he continued to rule with his former barbarity, his reign was of short duration. In 1805, a second conspiracy was formed against him, and he was assassinated. His death was succeeded by the most violent conflicts between the rival parties in the State, which did not terminate until nearly the whole of the nobles at Khatmandu had perished. The surviving adherents of the late Rájá having at length secured the person of his son, seized the reins of government, putting to death such of the opposite party as remained.

During all these intestine commotions, it is remarkable that the Gúrkhas still continued to extend their conquests on every side. To the west of Khatmandu, they found the hill chiefs distracted by mutual jealousies, and by no means in a condition to form a league for mutual defence. The Gúrkha armies very soon made themselves masters, without the aid of artillery, of every hill fort, from the Ganges to the Sutlej (Satlaj). When their movements first attracted the notice of the British Government, their general was erecting strong forts and stockades at convenient positions, namely Almorá, Srínagar, and Malowa. The frontier towards the Síkhs was also guarded by a strong line of fortified posts; and thus the consolidation of the Gúrkha empire proceeded with a slow but sure progress. The extensive tract which lies between Khatmandu and the Sutlej was held in firm subjection by a strong military force; whilst to the east, the Sikkim Rájá was deprived of half his territories, and compelled to pay tribute for the remainder. To the

north, the progress of conquest was restrained by the Chinese power, with which the Gúrkha chiefs had already found themselves unable to cope, and also by a lofty range of barren mountains. But the fertile plains in the south presented a more alluring prospect, and greater probabilities of success in a contest with a new and untried power. The consequence was a series of encroachments along the whole northern frontier of the British possessions, especially in the Districts of Gorakhpur and Sáran. The Government remonstrated against these proceedings, and an investigation into the respective claims of the two powers was commenced by commissioners jointly chosen; the result of which being entirely favourable to the British, a detachment of regulars was ordered to take possession of the debateable ground. But these being withdrawn during the rainy season, the chief police station upon the frontier was attacked by large bodies of Nepálese, and the officers were compelled to fly, with a loss of 18 killed and 6 wounded. Shortly afterwards, a second attack was made on another police station, and several persons were killed, after which the whole body was withdrawn. In 1814, war was declared. It is only necessary here to state generally, that the invasion of the Gúrkha dominions was commenced on the western frontier, beyond the Jumna (Jamuná), and near the Sutlej, the country there being considered as easier of access than the mountainous barrier on the side of Bengal. But the British troops, in attempting to storm the stockades and hill forts, were repeatedly driven back with severe loss. Here it was that General Gillespie fell, while encouraging his troops to renew the attack. In 1815, Sir David Ochterlony assumed the chief command. By a series of skilful operations he dislodged the Gúrkha troops from the fortified heights of Malowa, and ultimately so hemmed in their renowned commander, Amír Sinh, and his son, that they were forced to sign a capitulation, by which they agreed, on being permitted to retreat with their remaining troops, to abandon the whole territory west of the Káli branch of the Gogra. In Kumáun, also, the British troops succeeded in driving the enemy before them; and, in consequence of these successes, a definite treaty of peace was concluded on the 28th of November 1815. But the signature of the Rájá being withheld, it was determined to renew the war, and to strike a decisive blow directly at the capital of the country. Preparations for this arduous enterprise were made on a great scale, a force being assembled in Sáran numbering about 13,000 troops, of whom 3000 were Europeans, besides a large body of irregulars, amounting in all to above 46,000 men. This formidable force took the field in the end of January 1816, and advanced from Bettia directly on Khatmandu. The greatest difficulties were encountered, from the ruggedness of the country, in marching along the dry beds of torrents, through ravines, and in the face of precipices. The Gúrkhas made a brave resistance, but they

were defeated in several severe encounters; and the British force had now approached within three days' march of Khatmandu. Deeming all further resistance vain, an ambassador was sent to the British head-quarters, to sue for peace; and the unratified treaty of the year 1815 was accordingly duly signed. By this treaty the Nepálese renounced all claims to the territory in dispute. They also ceded all the conquests they had made to the west of the Káli branch of the Gogra. And these, with the exception of Kumáun, the Dehra Dún, and some other portions of territory annexed to the British dominions, were restored to the families of the chiefs who had reigned there prior to the Gúrkha invasion, and who were now to rule as vassals of the British.

In the course of this contest, the Nepálese had earnestly entreated the aid of the Chinese. Their application being transmitted by the Grand Lama to Pekin, an answer was received, in which the Emperor of China expressed his conviction that the Gúrkhas had themselves been the cause of the war by their unjust encroachments, and declined all interference. After peace was concluded with the British, the Chinese Emperor expressed deep offence against the rulers of Nepál, who, being merely tributaries, had presumed to make war or peace with the British, without the sanction of their superior; and to back those lofty pretensions, a Chinese army of 15,000 men, commanded by five generals, and attended by functionaries of superior rank, usually stationed at Lassa, advanced towards the Nepálese territories. At the request of the Nepál ministers, the British consented to act as mediators. But in the meantime they themselves despatched agents to the Chinese camp, who succeeded in bringing about the restoration of the previous relations between the two powers. In 1816, Amír Sinh Thappa, one of the most distinguished Gúrkha commanders who had so gallantly disputed the field with Sir David Ochterlony, died at the age of sixty-eight. To the last day of his life he was endeavouring, by every art of negotiation, to excite amongst the different States a spirit of hostility against the British, as the common enemies of Indian independence. In November 1816, the young Rájá died of small-pox, at the age of twenty-one years. One of his queens, and one of his concubines, together with five female attendants, burned themselves on the funeral pile along with the corpse. He left one son, three years of age, named Rájendra Bikram Sháh, who succeeded quietly to the throne, under the guardianship of the minister Bhím Sinh Thappa. From this time the history of Nepál presents little that can excite interest. The lately deceased (1878) prime minister, Jang Bahádur, was well known in England, and received the honour of a Grand Cross of the Star of India. He was the nephew of a man who had elevated himself to a high position in the administration of affairs. Upon the murder of his uncle, perpetrated at the instigation of the queen, a new ministry was formed, and Jang Bahádur

was appointed to the command of the army. Shortly afterwards, the new premier was assassinated, and the queen, with whom he was a favourite, demanded vengeance. Jang Bahádur undertook the task, and executed it with alacrity. An assembly of chiefs and nobles being convened within the palace, Jang, backed by a small force on which he could depend, suddenly appeared among them, and a general massacre raged throughout the building. Fourteen of the hostile chiefs fell by the hand of the commander-in-chief; but the bodies of his enemies were for Jang the stepping-stones to power. Before the dawn of the succeeding day, Jang Bahádur was invested with the office of prime minister. A conspiracy was formed for his destruction; but Jang seized and beheaded all the adherents of the chief conspirator. The queen was banished with her two younger sons, and, the king having accompanied them, the heir-apparent was raised to the throne. A feeble attempt was made by the monarch to regain his kingdom, but the energy of Jang baffled it, and the king was made prisoner. Jang Bahádur always professed a friendly feeling towards the British; and at the commencement of the Mutiny in 1857, he proved the sincerity of his friendship by reinforcing the British army with a contingent of Gúrkha troops, which did useful service in the recovery of Oudh. Our relations with Nepál since then to the present year (1879) have been on a satisfactory footing. But the State still continues closed to the European traveller.

Ner.—Town in Khandesh District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 56′ N., and long. 74° 34′ E., on the southern or right bank of the Pánjhra river, 14 miles west of Dhuliá. Pop. (1872), 5622. Ner was formerly an important Muhammadan town, and Muhammadan tombs still line the main-line road leading into it. Post office.

Ner (*Parsopant*).—Town in Wún District, Berar; situated north of Dárwa, in lat. 20° 29′ N., and long. 77° 55′ E. Noted for its dyers. Weekly market, police station, and school.

Nerbudda.—Division of the Central Provinces.—*See* NARBADA.

Nerbudda.—One of the great rivers of India.—*See* NARBADA.

Neri (*Nári*).—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 28′ N., and long. 79° 29′ E., 5 miles east-south-east of Chimúr. Population chiefly Marhattá. Nerí consists of an old and a new town, with an extensive stretch of rice land between. There are manufactures of brass and copper utensils and cotton cloth for export; and a considerable trade is carried on in grain, groceries, and salt. The old town contains two ruined forts; and an ancient temple, with pillars and carvings like those of the cave temples at Ajantá. Some graceful Panchál tombs, in which husband and wife lie side by side, are of later date. Nerí has schools both for boys and girls.

Neriad.—Town in Káira District, Bombay.—*See* NARIAD.

Nerla.—Town in Satára District, Bombay; situated 44 miles south by east of Satára town, in lat. 17° 6′ N., and long. 74° 15′ E. Pop. (1872), 6127. Post office.

Nerúr (*Nerrúr*).—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 0′ 15″ N., long. 78° 11′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 5963; number of houses, 1658.

Nerwár.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India.—*See* NARWAR.

Netái.—River in the Gáro Hills, Assam, which rises in the Turá range and flows a very winding course in a southerly direction, until it empties itself into the Kánks in the Bengal District of Maimansinh.

Netrávati.—River in South Kanara District, Madras; rises in lat. 13° 10′ 15″ N., and long. 75° 26′ 20″ E., and falls into the sea in lat. 12° 50′ N., and long. 74° 52′ 40″ E. It is formed by the junction, at Uppinangadi, of two streams, the Netrávati proper and the Kumardári. From Uppinangadi, the united stream flows to Mangalore. In floods, the Netrávati is navigable above Uppinangadi, and at all times between that place and Mangalore.

Nevti.—Port in Ratnagiri District, Bombay. Lat. 15° 55′ N., long. 73° 32′ E. Average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £443; exports, £2170.

Newálganj-cum-Mahárájganj.—Two adjacent towns in Unao District, Oudh; situated 2 miles east of Mohán town, on the Lucknow road. Lat. 26° 47′ 10″ N., long. 80° 45′ 21″ E. Newálganj was founded by Mahárájá Newál Rái, the Náib or Deputy of Nawáb Safdar Jang; Mahárájganj, which adjoins it, was built by Mahárájá Balkrishna, the late finance minister of the ex-king of Oudh, now living in retirement at Garden Reach, near Calcutta. The town is approached by a long and handsome bridge, which terminates in an archway. The *ganj* or market-place is about one-fourth of a mile long, and ends in another archway, passing under which, a sharp turn to the right brings the traveller opposite a third arch, forming the entrance into Newálganj. The bi-weekly *bázár*, held in Mahárájganj, is one of the largest in the neighbourhood. The sales include all the usual country produce of grain, tobacco, spices, and vegetables, with country cloth and European piece-goods. There is a separate trade in brass vessels, which are made in large quantities at Newálganj. Pop. (1869) of Newálganj, 3728; of Mahárájganj, 4028.

Nga-hlaing-khyún.—Revenue circle in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 52 square miles; pop. (1877), 3171; gross revenue, £376. Chief products—rice, cotton, sesamum, maize, and cutch. Petroleum wells have been sunk near the village of Padouk-beng, but the yield at present is small.

Nga-khc-byeng.—Revenue circle in the Rámrí township, Kyoukhpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 14 square miles;

pop. (1877-78), 4002; gross revenue, £880. Products, rice and indigo; limestone is found towards the north-east.

Nga-khwa.—Revenue circle in the Tha-boung township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Flat in the east, but rising in the west towards the Arakan range. Limestone is found near the main range. Pop. (1877), 2445; gross revenue, £710.

Nga-pí-tshiep.—Village in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1877-78), 2019.

Nga-pú-taw.—Township occupying the extreme south-western portion of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It is divided into two very dissimilar tracts by the Arakan Yoma range. The south-eastern one consists of a large island (32 miles long by 7 broad) lying in the Bassein river, and intersected by numerous inter-communicating tidal creeks. Off the Bassein mouth is Diamond Island; farther out to sea is the ALGUADA reef. Towards the north the country is flat and covered with forest, whilst in the extreme north the surface is dotted with small sandstone hills. West of the Arakan range, nowhere more than 16 miles from the sea, the whole country is mountainous, the spurs extending by gradual slopes to the sandy beach, and forming, as at Cape Negrais, rugged and sea-washed escarpments. In a few places are small rice plains; but as a rule such cultivation as exists is on the hillsides. The Arakan Yomas attain no great elevation in this township. There are two principal passes across the range. The chief rivers are the MYIT-TA-RA and the THAN-DWAI. Large vessels can enter the latter and pass up about 6 miles. Nga-pú-taw comprises 10 revenue circles; pop. (1876-77), 20,037; gross revenue, £8013.

Nga-pyeng.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3301; gross revenue, £598. Products—rice, sesamum, tobacco, maize, and plantains.

Nga-rút-koung.—Revenue circle in the Nga-pú-taw township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Bounded on the east by the Arakan Yoma Hills, and on the south and west by the Bay of Bengal. The country comprised within these limits is mountainous and covered with dense forest; at places are small plains cultivated with rice. Along the coast-line, stretches of sandy beach alternate with rocks jutting out into the sea. Pop. (1877-78), 2114; gross revenue, £429.

Nga-thaing-khyoung.—Headquarters of the Nga-thaing-khyoung Division of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the Bassein river, in a rice-producing tract. Contains a court-house and the usual public buildings. Pop. (1877), 2289; revenue (1876-77), £645.

Nga-won.—River in Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* BASSEIN.

Nga-zaing-raing. — Revenue circle in the Meng-bra township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 2557; gross revenue, £932.

Ngwe-doung. — Revenue circle in the Ra-thai-doung township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 2040; gross revenue, £663.

Ngwe-tweng-tú. — Revenue circle in the Mye-bún township, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 36 square miles. Cut up into numerous islands by the tidal creeks at the mouth of the Dha-let river. Pop. (1877-78), 2060; gross revenue, £656.

Niamti.—Village in Shimogá District, Mysore.—*See* NYAMTI.

Nibárí.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam; situated on the Jingiram river, where it debouches upon the plains of Goálpára. The *bázár* is a centre of trade where the Gáros exchange their hill products for rice, cloth, dried fish, etc. The *dwár* or lowland tract of the same name contains valuable *sál* timber, yielding revenue to Government.

Nibrang.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over the range which bounds Kunáwar to the south; lies in lat. 31° 22′ N., and long. 78° 13′ E., between two perpendicular rocks, 35 feet in height, and bears a striking resemblance to a gateway. Elevation above sea level, 16,035 feet.

Nicobars.—A cluster of islands lying to the south of the Andamans, between lat. 6° 40′ and 9° 20′ N., and long. 93° and 94° E. The area of the whole archipelago amounts approximately to 735·5 square miles, and the population to about 6000 persons. This group consists of 8 large and 12 small islands, of which the following are the principal:—Chowry, Terressa, Bompoka, Tillangchong, Carmorta, Nancowry, Katchall, Car-Nicobar, the Little Nicobar, and the Great Nicobar. The largest of these is the Great Nicobar, which is about 30 miles in length, and between 12 and 15 in breadth. The length of the others is as follows:—Car-Nicobar, 6 miles; Terressa, 12 miles; Katchall, 9 miles; Nancowry, 4 miles; Carmorta, 16 miles; and the Little Nicobar, 12 miles. Nancowry gives its name to a splendid harbour, which is formed by the islands of Nancowry, Carmorta, and a smaller one called Trinkati. Many of the channels which separate the islands form excellent and safe passages for ships.

Physical Aspects.—Most of the islands are hilly, and some of the peaks attain a considerable height. Others again are flat, and covered with forests of cocoa-nut trees. All of them are well wooded. The valleys and sides of the hills, to a considerable height, are so thickly covered with trees that the light of the sun is never able to penetrate through their foliage. Among the principal trees are the cocoa-nut and areca palms, the mango, the *larum* or *mellori*, and a variety of timber-tree which grows to an immense height, and would afford excellent

material for building and repairing ships. Tropical fruits grow in great abundance, and yams of fine quality and size. The domestic animals are dogs, pigs, and a few fowls. Of birds, the Nicobar swallow is the chief. It is the builder of the edible nests, so highly valued by the Chinese. All kinds of fish abound in the waters around the islands, and shell-fish are found in great quantities. The soil on the sea-shore is composed of sand, coral, lime, and vegetable mould, more or less thick; the hills are red clay, and the rocks lime, sandstone, and slate. Specimens of coal have been found in various parts of the Nicobars, and though differing in appearance are alike in nature. The circumstance of their similarity is a favourable indication of the probable existence of one great bed extending through the islands.

People.—It is difficult to determine the origin of the Nicobarians. In some features they resemble the Malays, yet the shape of their eyes is so different, and their manners and customs so peculiar, that they must be considered as a separate race. They are of a copper colour, well proportioned in their bodies, short rather than tall, with Chinese eyes, small flat noses, large mouths, thick lips, large ears, scanty beard, and straight black hair. Their villages are generally built upon the beach, and consist of fifteen or twenty houses, each house containing a family of twenty persons and upwards. These habitations are raised upon wooden pillars about 10 feet from the ground; they are round, and, having no windows, look like bee-hives covered with thatch. The entry is by a trap-door below, through which the family mount by a ladder, which is drawn up at night. Fishing forms their chief occupation. Their food consists of pigs, poultry, turtle, fish, cocoa-nuts, yams, fruits, and a bread made from the fruit of the *mellori* tree. In character, the islanders are lazy, cowardly, treacherous, and drunken. They have committed repeated murders on the crews of vessels under the British flag. In several instances the natives received the crew hospitably, and when the sailors were partaking of refreshment they suddenly rushed upon them and killed them before they had time to act in defence. There now seems little doubt that many vessels supposed to have been lost in the Bay of Bengal were in fact cut off and plundered by the natives of these islands. There is no written language, and the dialects spoken differ so much that the inhabitants of one island can scarcely make themselves understood in another. Like other savage nations, the Nicobarians dread the evil genius, and are much addicted to superstition. They entertain the highest opinion of such as can read and write, and believe that all Europeans, by this qualification, are able to perform acts more than human. They have a great reverence for their dead. Although they do not possess a clear conception of immortality, they suppose that the soul of the dead stays for a time in the neighbourhood in which it lived. Burials are conducted with great

solemnity, and over each body a post is erected, on which are placed the utensils daily used by the deceased. The Nicobarians hold in dishonour simultaneous polygamy. They never keep more than one wife at once, but have no scruple in dismissing her on the slightest pretext, and taking another. A perfect equality subsists among them all. A few persons, from their age, receive a certain measure of respect, but there is no appearance of authority one over another. Society seems bound together rather by natural obligations continually conferred and received.

Agriculture is quite unknown on the Nicobars. The soil is nowhere cultivated, though many valleys might be rendered fertile with a little trouble. At present the principal product of these islands is the cocoa-nut palm, and its ripe nuts form the chief export. Edible birds' nests, tortoiseshell, ambergris, and *trepang* (the sea-slug) are also shipped off. The northern islands are said to yield annually ten million cocoa-nuts, of which hardly more than five millions are exported. As this important product is six times cheaper here than on the coast of Bengal or in the Straits of Malacca, the number of English and Malay vessels that come to the Nicobars for cocoa-nuts is every year increasing. In barter, they give black, blue, and red cloths, handkerchiefs, cutlasses, Burmese *dáos*, spoons, spirits, tobacco, red woollen caps, old clothes, and black hats.

History.—The first attempt at the colonization of the Nicobars was made by the Danes in the middle of the last century, but the small colony was soon swept away by fever. Still, notwithstanding other unsuccessful attempts, the interest taken in these islands did not abate, and in 1846 the Danish flag was hoisted at Nancowry, in the name of Christian VIII., King of Denmark. On the death of the king in 1858, the Danish Government, considering the course of political events at home, gave up the claim of possession. The report of an attack on an English vessel, and murder of the crew, in 1848, caused the British authorities in India to inquire into the truth of this information; and as there was every reason to believe in the story related by the survivors, it was thought advisable to bring the island under our authority, so that steps might be taken to check the piratical practices of the islanders. In 1869, the Nicobars were annexed by Her Majesty's Indian Government, and were placed for administration under the Superintendent of the Andaman Islands.

Climate.—The dense jungles, which impede every current of free air, and extensive marshes, render the climate of the Nicobars very unhealthy. The prevailing disease is malarious fever, which has proved fatal to many of the colonists who tried to effect a settlement on the island. The rainy season is the predominant season of the year; even the driest months, from December to March, are not without rain. The heaviest rains occur in May, June, and July, and the south-west wind

is then very strong, and frequently rises to a storm. The annual rainfall cannot be less than 100 inches.

Nidadaúl (*Niddadole*).—Town in Masulipatam District, Madras; situated in lat. 16° 54′ 28″ N., and long. 81° 42′ 41″ E., 63 miles north-east by north of Masulipatam.

Nidhauli. — Village in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 3626. Remains of a fort built by Khushál Sinh. Brisk trade in grain, indigo seed, and cotton. Police station, post office, school.

Nidugal (lit. '*Long or high stone*').—Fortified hill in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Lat. 14° 9′ 22″ N., long. 77° 7′ 31″ E.; 3780 feet above sea level. The residence of a line of *paligárs*, whose founder is said to have lived in the 16th century. They maintained a qualified independence until swept away by Tipú Sultán in 1792. The village of the same name on the north side of the hill has a population (1871) of 735.

Nighásan.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Kheri District, Oudh; situated between 27° 41′ and 28° 42′ N. lat., and between 80° 21′ 15″ and 81° 23′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the independent State of Nepál, on the east by Nánpára *tahsíl*, on the south by Biswán and Sítápur *tahsíls*, and on the west by Lakhimpur *tahsíl*. The largest but the most thinly populated Subdivision in the District. Area, 1256 square miles, of which only 480 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 239,552, viz. 222,694 Hindus and 16,858 Muhammadans; average density of population, 182 per square mile; number of villages or townships, 406. This *tahsíl* comprises the 5 *parganás* of Firozábád, Dhaurahra, Nighásan, Kháirigarh, and Pália.

Nighásan.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Kháirigarh, from which it is separated by the river Sarju; on the east by Dhaurahra; on the south by Bhúr, the Chauka river marking the boundary; and on the west by Pália. This *parganá*, which has only been recently constituted, forms part of the low plain between the Sarju and Chauka rivers. Along the banks of these rivers runs a broad fringe of *tarái* or jungle, consisting of *khair*, *shisham*, and *gulár* trees, which is inundated every year during the autumnal rains. Between rises a long ridge of higher land, with a good loamy soil, forming a plain varying from 1 to 9 miles in width. The *parganá* is intersected by *sotas* or backwaters of the Sarju and Chauka; and is covered with narrow semicircular marshes known as *bhaggar*, which mark old river-channels. The forests along the Sarju swarm with wild animals; and herds of wild hogs, deer, *nílgái*, and antelopes do great injury to the crops, and necessitate the constant watching of the fields, day and night. Tigers are seldom found; but leopards are frequently met with. Area of the *parganá*, 263 square miles, of which 109 are under cultivation. The reserved forest area amounts to 15,971 acres. The

prevailing tenure is *tálukdárí;* and 62 out of the 73 villages comprised in the *parganá* are owned by Chauhán Rájputs, who are also the greatest proprietors in the neighbouring *parganá* of Bhúr. Population (1869), 57,842, viz. 55,320 Hindus and 2522 Muhammadans. The population is scanty; and owing to the aversion with which the country is regarded by people belonging to other parts of Oudh, there is ample spare land, and tenures are extremely favourable to the cultivator. The only roads in the *parganá* are one from Pália on the east to Shitábi Ghát on the west, which is crossed at right angles at Balrámpur, and one from Sirsí Ghát on the south to Kháirigarh on the north. Ferries are maintained at several points across the Chauka and Sarju rivers.

Nigohán.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh, and headquarters of Nigohán *parganá;* situated 23 miles from Lucknow city, on the road to Rái Bareli. Pop. (1869), 2306, inhabiting 509 houses. Bráhmans are numerous, their principal means of subsistence being the large groves surrounding the village, which they have always held rent free. Market, and Government vernacular school.

Nigohán Sissáindi.—*Parganá* in Lucknow District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mohánlálganj *parganá*, and on the south by the Sái river, which separates it from Unao District. This *parganá* is finely wooded to the south and near the town of Nigohán, but to the north-west it is bare, and covered by wide barren plains. The soil along the Sái is light and sandy, and also along the banks of the Bánk stream, which crosses the *parganá* obliquely from the north, and joins the Sái to the south of Nigohán. This sandy land amounts to 20 per cent. of the cultivated area, and injuriously affects the general fertility. Except round the large villages, and in the south-west of the *parganá*, the cultivation is not so high as in the rest of the District. Area, 72 square miles, of which 37 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 37,200, viz. 35,493 Hindus and 1707 Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £4825, equal to an incidence of 4s. per acre on the cultivated area, 2s. 7½d. per acre on the assessed area, or 2s. 1½d. per acre on the total area—a lower rate than in any other *parganá* of Lucknow. The tenure is principally *tálukdárí;* out of 57 villages comprising the *parganá*, 36 belong to *tálukdárs*, forming three estates. The only towns with a population exceeding 2000 are NIGOHAN and SISSAINDI, but 7 others contain over 1000 inhabitants. Schools are maintained in five villages. The *parganá* is traversed by two roads—one running from Rái Bareli to Lucknow, and another from Sissáindi to Mohánlálganj.

Nihálgarh Chak Jangla.—Town in Sultánpur District, Oudh; 36 miles west of Sultánpur town, on the road to Lucknow. Pop. (1869), 2593. Three Hindu temples; police station; Government school.

Nihtor.—Town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Pro-

vinces; situated in lat. 29° 19′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 25′ 35″ E., on the banks of the Gángan, upon the Dhámpur road. Pop. (1872), 9392.

Nijagal.—Hill fort in Bangalore District, Mysore, crowned with ruined fortifications. Lat. 13° 15′ N., long. 77° 15′ 20″ E. The scene of much desperate fighting chronicled in local tradition. The village at the base of the hill is now deserted.

Nikriting.—Village in Síbságar District, Assam; on the left or south bank of the Brahmaputra, about 16 miles north of the Subdivisional town of Golághát. Stopping-place for the river steamers, where they take on board tea, and distribute stores for the tea-gardens in the Golághát Subdivision.

Nílapalli.—Town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 44′ N., long. 82° 13′ E.; close to the French settlement of Yanáon, and one of the English factories founded in the commencement of the 18th century. Pop. (1871), 4560; number of houses, 1088. The factory was continued (although it was agreed that the fortifications should be removed) by the Treaty of Pondicherri (1754).

Níleswaram (*Nílkánta-Ishwaram;* also spelt *Níliseram*).—Town in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 12° 15′ N., long. 75° 9′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 6878; number of houses, 1625. Seat of sub-magistrate, and residence of pensioned Rájás. The southernmost town of Kanara, and, according to Wilks, the old limit of Kerála.

Nílgiri Hills ('*Blue Mountains*').—District and range of mountains, Madras. The District of the Nílgiris until recently consisted exclusively of a mountain plateau, lying at an average elevation of 6500 feet, with an area of about 725 square miles. In 1877, a portion of the Wainád *táluk* of Malabar, at an average elevation of 3000 feet, was added to the south-west of the District, which now may be said to lie between 11° 12′ and 11° 37′ N. lat., and 76° 18′ and 77° 5′ E. long., and to occupy an area of 978 square miles. Its extreme length from north to south is 29 miles; width from east to west, 51 miles; population in 1871, 49,501; area at that time, 749 square miles. It is bounded on the north by Mysore (Maisúr); on the east by Coimbatore District; on the south by portions of Malabar and Coimbatore; and on the west by Malabar.

Jurisdiction.—The Nílgiri Hills formed part of the District of Coimbatore till 1831, when the greater portion was transferred to Malabar. In 1843, they were re-transferred to the jurisdiction of the Collector of Coimbatore, of which District they formed a Subdivision till 1st August 1868, when they were constituted a separate District, and placed under a Commissioner, who, in addition to his revenue functions as Collector, is invested with the powers of a Civil and Sessions Judge. Under him is an Assistant, who has the powers of a District Magistrate, Judge of Small Causes, and District *munsif.* There are two Joint Magistrates, one at Utákamand (Ootacamund) and one at

Wellington. The jurisdiction was increased in 1873 by the addition of the 'Ochterlony Valley' section of south-east Wainád; and from 31st March 1877, the tracts known as the Nambalakád, Cherangod, and Munnanád *amshoms*, which formed part of the *táluk* of Wainád in Malabar, were also transferred to this District. UTAKAMAND was a 'military *bázár*' under a Commandant till 1840, when it was made a civil station, and it is now the administrative headquarters. The District contains 4 Subdivisions or *náds*, viz. Paranganád, Todanád, Mekanád, and Kundananád.

History.—Nothing is known of the early history of these hills, and the local tribes are singularly destitute of traditions reaching back beyond comparatively recent times. Cairns and cromlechs found all over the upper plateau put it beyond doubt that at a very early period some tribes inhabited the country, and the ethnological isolation of the Toda tribe confirms this. Their belief is that their own ancestors were autochthones. There is no evidence of there having been any sovereign ruler amongst them; but according to the other hillmen, about a century before the reign of Haidar Alí in Mysore, three chiefs ruled in Todanád, Mekanád, and Peranganád, and had their strongholds respectively at Maláikota, Hulikaldrúg, and Kotágiri. It is not unreasonable to suppose that the hills formed part of the Kongudesa or Eastern Chera country, and so passed to Mysore in the 17th century. Haidar Alí appears to have seized upon two of the forts, viz. Hulikaldrúg and Maláikota, which command the passes into the Coimbatore and Malayálam countries, and, after having strengthened and garrisoned them, controlled the hill tribes, and imposed upon them very heavy taxes. It is said that Tipú, when he made his incursions into Wainád, ascended the hills through the Segúr *ghát*, and occupied the fort at Kotágiri. The Nílgiris were first explored in 1814 by Messrs. Keys and M'Mahon of the Survey Department. Five years later, Messrs. Whish and Kindersley of the Civil Service ascended (while in pursuit of a band of tobacco smugglers) through a pass near Kotágiri, thereby becoming 'acquainted with the existence of a tableland possessing a European climate.' A year after (1820), Mr. Sullivan, then Collector of Coimbatore, invited the attention of Government to Utákamand as a sanitarium; and, in 1821, he built the first English house on the plateau.

Physical Aspects. — The original District consisted of a tableland enclosed between two ranges of hills, thus described by Mr. Breeks:— 'The mountains rise abruptly for two-thirds of their total height, presenting from the plains below almost the aspect of a wall. The interior of the plateau consists chiefly of grassy undulating hills divided by narrow valleys, each of which invariably contains a stream or a swamp. In the hollows of the hillsides nestle small beautiful woods, locally known

as *sholas.*' The summit or plateau presents a most varied and diversified aspect. Although the undulating surface nowhere approaches the character of a champaign country, and frequently breaks into lofty ridges and abrupt rocky eminences, it may be called a plateau, and is practicable to a degree seldom observed in mountain tracts of equal elevation elsewhere in India. On all sides, the descent to the plains is sudden and abrupt, the average fall from the crest to the general level below being about 6000 feet, save on the north, where the base of the mountains rests upon the elevated land of Wainád and Mysore, which, standing between 2000 and 3000 feet above the level of the sea, form, as it were, a step by which the main fall towards the sea is broken. From both of these elevated tracts, the Nílgiris are separated by a broad and extensive valley through which the Moyár river 'flows after descending from the hills by a fall at Neddiwattam in the north-west angle of the plateau; and the isolation of this mountain territory would be complete, but for a singular sharp and precipitous ridge of granite peaks, which projects from the base of a remarkable cone called Yellamalái on the western crest of the range, and, taking a west by north course towards the coast, unites itself with the range popularly called the Western Gháts' (Ochterlony). In the south-west angle of the Nílgiris are the Kúndas; spurs from this range run to the southward to a considerable extent. The Ochterlony valley and the recently added *amshoms* of south-east Wainád lie 3000 feet lower, and consist of a series of broken valleys, once forest-clad throughout, but now studded with coffee-gardens. The highest peaks are—Dodabetta, 8760 feet; Kudiakád, 8502 feet; Bevoibetta, 8488 feet; Makurti, 8402 feet; Dávarsolabett, 8380 feet; Kúnda, 8353 feet; Kúndamoge, 7816 feet; Utákamand, 7361 feet; Támbrabetta, 7292 feet; Hokabbetta, 7267 feet; Urbetta, 6915 feet; Kodanád, 6815 feet; Davebetta, 6571 feet; Kotágiri, 6571 feet; Kundabetta, 6555 feet; Dimhatti, 6330 feet; Coonoor (Kúnúr), 5886 feet; Rangaswámi Peak, opposite the Gazzalhatti Pass, 5948 feet. There are six well-known passes or *gháts* by which the District communicates with the neighbouring Provinces, viz. the Coonoor (Kúnúr), Segúr, Gúdalúr, Sispára, Kotágiri, and Sundapatti. The first three are practicable to wheeled traffic. The Kúnúr *ghát* is the principal approach; and the road is of easy gradient and well made. The Segúr and Gúdalúr *gháts* give access to Mysore and Wainád. The Sispára or Kúnda *ghát* is now abandoned, owing to the 'opening of a new road from Utákamand to Neddiwattam, and thence a new *ghát* which joins the Government imperial roads at Gúdalúr running down the Karkúr *ghát* at Nellambúr and Mámbat' (Ochterlony). The only rivers in these hills are the MOYAR, which rises at the foot of the Nílgiri peak and flows into the Bhavani river near Danayakankotta in Coimbatore; the PAIKARA, which, after taking a northerly course

discharges itself into the Moyár (distance from Makurti peak to the falls, about 10 miles); and the CALICUT. Near the travellers' bungalow, the Paikára is about 40 yards wide during dry weather, and contains a succession of deep pools divided by shallows, in which are large boulders of rock. The bed, which is gravelly on the fords, is generally covered by a fine red sand, with which the water appears impregnated. The Calicut flows into the sea at Beypur near Calicut town. 'The head of this stream is formed by the drainage of the elevated tabular mass of hills, which occurs to the north-west at Neddiwattam; and though it descends the face of the hills at no great distance from the fall of the Moyár, the intervention of a sharp spur diverts its course into an exactly opposite direction, forcing it over the ridge called the Karkúr or Yellamalái Hills, to find its way to its embouchure on the western coast' (Ochterlony). The only lake of note is that at Utákamand (7220 feet above the level of the sea), which is nearly 2 miles long. It is formed by an artificial embankment, thrown across the western outlet of the valley, by which the waters of the Dodabetta streams are dammed up. This lake is one of the distinctive features of the station, and round its banks is the favourite drive. Similar lakes might, no doubt, be formed in many other valleys. There are no indigenous fish on the plateau, except minnows. Tench, carp, and trout are, however, being acclimatized. In the Wainád, the *máhsir* is found in the upper waters of the Moyár and Calicut. The plateau is chiefly grass land studded with *sholás* or small woods. On the Kúndas, these *sholás* increase in extent; and on the lower slopes, the forests become dense with fine timber-trees, such as *sál* (Shorea robusta), *kino* (Pterocarpus marsupium), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), teak (Tectona grandis). The forest area in the Wainád portion of the District is about 150 square miles; on the higher ground, Eucalypti and the Australian wattle have been largely planted. The forest revenue is about £7500. Large game, especially tiger, bear, *sámbhar*, and ibex were once very plentiful on the plateau, but constant and too often unsportsmanlike shooting has reduced the number sadly. Leopards, hyænas, wild boars, porcupines, jungle sheep, and hares are still found in fair abundance, as also woodcock, snipe, spur-fowl, jungle-fowl, and pea-fowl. A close season has been established by law (1878) for the preservation of deer and other useful species of game. There have been no deaths by wild beasts or snakes recorded since 1875.

Population.—The first enumeration of the District was made in 1848, when the population was returned at 17,057, distributed over 420 square miles, giving a proportion of 40 per square mile. According to the Census of 1871, the inhabitants numbered 49,501, dwelling in 13,922 houses. The number of hill tribes, exclusive of the Kurumbas, was, in 1848, 7674; in 1866, inclusive of the Kurumbas, 19,891; and in

1871, 23,364. The recent additions made to the District had, in 1871, a population of 25,118 in 1692 houses, making a total population of 74,619 persons dwelling in 15,614 houses. Allowing for the busy Ochterlony valley, with its 5000 coffee coolies, and for the rapid increase observable everywhere, the total number of inhabitants now in the District is probably little short of 100,000, of whom nearly 2000 are Europeans. The number of Bráhmans in 1871 was 323; of Kshattriyas, 80; Chetties (traders), 3318; and Vellálars (cultivators), 7109. Classified according to religion—Hindus numbered 66,834; Muhammadans, 2444; Christians, 5297; 'others,' 44, the hill tribes being included under Hindus. Of the native Christians, 2461 were Roman Catholics and 506 Protestants, distributed among the Basel and two English Missions. Of the total population, 60 per cent. were employed, of whom 40 per cent. are agriculturists. Many thousands of coolies come from Mysore annually to work on the coffee-gardens, and although the majority return at the end of the season, a small section remains. The principal towns are—UTAKAMAND (Ootacamund), population (1871), 9982, or, including Lovedale, 10,728; COONOOR (Kúnúr), population, 3058. WELLINGTON cantonment, population, 1741. The local districts (*nád*) are—PARANGANAD, population (hill tribes), 8363; TODANAD, 7537; MEKANAD, 5048. The large majority of villages do not contain above a few hundred inhabitants each; and even those given are groups of scattered hamlets rather than villages.

Hill Tribes.—Five hill tribes are found on the Nílgiris—the Todas, Badagas, Kotas, Kurumbas, and Irulas, the first three being peculiar to this range. The most interesting of all these tribes are the Todas, who are described by Ochterlony as 'tall, well-proportioned, and athletic.' 'Their bold, independent carriage,' he continues, 'and finely moulded and sinewy limbs attest that they are sprung from no effeminate eastern race; while the aquiline nose, receding forehead and rounded profile, combined with their black bushy beards and eyebrows, give them a decidedly Jewish aspect. Their dress is as peculiar as their habits and appearance, consisting of a single cloth, a sort of toga, which they wear after a fashion well calculated to set off to advantage their muscular forms, being disposed about the person like the plaid of a Scotch Highlander. The costume of the women is much the same as that of the men, the toga or mantle being wrapped around them so as to cover the entire person from shoulder to ankle. In habits the Todas are very dirty and indolent. They practise polyandry, a woman marrying all the brothers of a family. Females number about 3 to every 5 males. Their sole occupation is cattle-herding and dairy work. Their food consists of milk, curds, *ghí*, and different millets and cereals. The language seems a mixed jargon of Tamil and Kanarese, and is classed by Dr. Caldwell as a separate language of the Dravidian

family, lying between Old Kanarese and Tamil. Dr. Oppert finds in it a closer affinity to Telugu. The Todas worship, besides their dairy buffaloes, several deities, of which the principal are Hiriadeva or the 'belly-god,' and the 'hunting-god.' They believe that after death the soul goes to *Oru-norr* or *Am-norr*, "the great or other country." The hamlets or villages of this tribe are called *mands* or *molts*, which are thus described by Dr. Shortt: 'Each *mand* usually comprises about five buildings or huts, three of which are used as dwellings, one as a dairy, and the other for sheltering the calves at night. These huts are of a peculiar oval pent-shaped construction, usually 10 feet high, 18 feet long, and 9 feet broad. The entrance or doorway is 32 inches in height and 18 in width, and is closed by means of a solid slab of wood from 4 to 6 inches thick. This is inside the hut, and slides on two stout stakes. There are no other openings or outlets of any kind. The houses are neat in appearance, and are built of bamboo closely laid together, fastened with rattan, and thatched. Each building has end walls of solid wood, and the sides are covered in by the pent roofing, which slopes down to the ground. The interior of a hut is from 8 to 15 feet square. On one side there is a raised platform or *pial* formed of clay, about 2 feet high, covered with deer or buffalo skins, or sometimes with a mat. This is used as a sleeping-place. On the opposite side is a fire-place and a slight elevation on which the cooking utensils are placed. Outside, an enclosure of loose stones is piled up 2 or 3 feet high. The dairy, which is also the temple of the *mand*, is slightly larger, and contains two apartments separated by planking; one part is a storehouse for *ghí*, milk, and curds.' In 1867, the number of *mands* was 106, with a population of 704. In 1871, the total number of the Todas was returned at only 693,—405 men to 288 women.

The Badagars or Vadacars (from *Badacu* or *Vadacu*, meaning 'north') are supposed to have come from the north, in consequence of famine and persecution, about 300 years ago, after the dismemberment of the Vijáyanagar kingdom. They constitute the most numerous, wealthy, and civilised of the indigenous tribes, and are described by Short as being also the fairest of all. The men, he says, clothe themselves much like the natives of the plains, with head and waist cloths, a sheet being used as a wrapper, to cover the shoulders and body. The women wear a white cloth fastened by a cord under the arms, leaving bare the arms and shoulders, and the legs below the knees. The hair is thrown back and knotted loosely on the nape of the neck. The Badagas are partial to ornaments, and wear rings, bracelets, armlets, necklets, and ear and nose rings of brass, iron, or silver. They pay a tribute called *gudu* to the Todas. Their chief diet consists of *korali* and *samay*, two innutritious cereals. Their language is an old Kanarese dialect. In religion they are Hindus, their principal deity being Rangaswámi, whose temple is

situated on the summit of Rangaswámi peak, the easternmost point of the Nílgiris; they also worship many inferior divinities, male and female. In 1871, they numbered 19,476 souls.

The Kotas (properly Gauhatars; from the Sanskrit *gau*, a 'cow,' and *hata*, 'slaying,' *i.e.* cow-killers) are, according to Shortt, 'well made and of tolerable height, rather good-featured and light skinned, with shapely heads and long loose hair, elongated faces with sharply defined features, the forehead narrow but prominent, the ears flat and lying close to the skull. The women are of moderate height, of fair build, and not nearly so good-looking as the men. Most of them have prominent foreheads, snub noses, and a vacant expression.' The Kotas practise agriculture and various handicrafts, and are good carriers; they perform menial offices for the Todas and Badagas, and, like the latter, pay a *gudu* to the Todas. They worship ideal gods which are not represented by any image. Their language is an old and rude dialect of the Kanarese, but without the guttural or pectoral sound peculiar to the Todas. 'The Kotas have about 7 villages altogether. Six of these are located on the hills, and the seventh is at Gúdalúr. Each village contains from 30 to 60 or more huts, of tolerable size, built of mud walls, and covered with the usual thatch grass, somewhat after the style of native huts in the plains. The arrangement of the dwellings is far from neat. The floors are raised from 2 to 3 feet, with a short verandah in front, and a *payal* or seat on either side of the door.' In 1871, the Kotas numbered 1112.

The Kurumbas ('shepherds'), the most uncivilised of the five tribes, are described by Shortt as 'small in stature, squalid and uncouth in appearance, with wild matted hair, and almost nude bodies. They are sickly-looking, pot-bellied, large-mouthed, prognathous, with prominent outstanding teeth and thick lips. The women have much the same features as the men, slightly modified with a small pug-nose and surly aspect. They wear merely a piece of cloth, extending from under the arms to the knee; but some have only a waist-cloth. Both men and women wear ornaments of iron, brass, various seeds, shells, and glass beads as earrings, necklets, armlets, bracelets, rings, etc. Their villages are termed *motta*, and are generally located at an elevation of 2000 or 3000 feet, in mountain clefts, glens, or forests. A Kurumba house is one long apartment, extending from 30 to 50 feet in length, scarcely 5 feet high, loosely and scantily thatched, walled around by brushwood or bamboo plaitings, and divided by the same into several apartments, each not exceeding 8 or 10 feet square. There is neither door nor door-frame, but the huts are shut at nights by placing plaitings of bamboo or brushwood against the opening. Their language is a corrupt Tamil. The various grains, chillies, Indian corn, yams, and some of the commonest vegetables are grown

by them in small quantities, but, as a rule, they do not cultivate. They have a very vague form of religious belief, but they worship many natural objects. Those Kurumbas, who live on the hills, officiate as priests to the Badagas. They are a superstitious race; and while they keep all the other tribes of these hills in awe, they themselves fear the Todas.' Besides cultivating on a small scale, they collect in the jungles several kinds of grain, fruits, soap-nuts, myrobalans, dye-barks, shed deer-horns, mouse deer, squirrels, tortoises, fish, medicinal herbs, roots, honey, and bees-wax, which they barter on the plains for grain and cloth. A gang of them are employed on the Government cinchona plantations at Neddiwattam, and some few have been met with in the coffee estates near Kotágiri and Gúdalúr. In 1871, the Kurumbas numbered 613 souls.

The Irulas (or 'benighted ones,' from the Tamil word *iral*, 'darkness') live on the lowest slopes and forests extending from the base of the Nílgiris to the plains, and are not, strictly speaking, inhabitants of the hills, nor are they recognised as such by the other tribes. 'They are tolerably good-looking, very much superior in physique to the Kurumbas, and in some respects even to the Kotas. The women are strong and stoutly built, anything but prepossessing in appearance, and very dark skinned. The men wear no clothing but a *languti* or waistband in their own homes; but when working on the plantations, they wear cloths like other natives. The women wear a double fold of a wrapper cloth, which extends from the waist to the knees; the upper part of their bodies with their bosoms are nude. They are fond of ornaments, and wear strings of red and white beads about their necks, thin wire bracelets and armlets, with ear and nose rings.' They are an idle and dissolute tribe, though in physique well adapted to hard manual labour. They use animal food of every description, and they are expert huntsmen. Their language is a rough Tamil, with many Kanarese and Malayálam words. They numbered 1400 in 1871, and live principally in the neighbourhood of one of their temples on Rangaswámi peak.

With the exception of the Irulas and Kurumbas, who, owing to the careless and wandering life they lead, are always poor, the hill tribes are in very comfortable circumstances. The Badagas, who are an industrious cultivating people, are rapidly becoming wealthy, as the improved character of their houses and extended holdings testify.

Agriculture.—The crops grown on the Nílgiris include wheat, barley, and other cereals; peas, beans, potatoes, garlic, onions, mustard, castor-oil, etc. Two and sometimes three crops of potatoes can be taken off the soil in the course of a year, and the cultivation of this root is now growing into much importance, but is not free from the anxieties peculiar to potato-growing elsewhere. Besides potatoes, peas, and turnips, cabbages, cauliflower, beetroot, celery, parsnips, artichokes, and nearly

every variety of English vegetable grow well. Of fruits, the grape, plum, Brazil cherry, raspberry, apple, peach, pear, and orange are grown. In some farms and gardens, managed by Europeans, oats, lucerne, and clover have been cultivated successfully. Dairy farms are worked profitably, but a small industry in silk that once promised well is now all but abandoned.

The commercially important products are coffee, tea, and cinchona. Coffee cultivation was first introduced on these hills about 1844, having already been established in the Wainád and in Coorg. There are now, exclusive of several hundreds of small native clearings planted with coffee, 173 estates opened (of which 77 are in the Nílgiris proper, 24 in the Ochterlony valley, 72 in South-East Wainád). These estates contain about 25,000 acres of coffee land, of which 20,000 are already planted, and probably about 18,000 are in full bearing. Their present value may be estimated at over a million sterling, and the annual out-turn averages about 3000 to 4000 tons of coffee, which at present prices would yield about £350,000. They give employment to 10,000 or 12,000 labourers. There are about 150 European planters and estate superintendents in the District. Besides these, many estates are owned by natives of India. The first tea-garden on the plateau was opened in 1851. There are at present 33 estates of 6000 acres, of which 3500 are planted, and 2000 acres in full bearing. The aggregate value of these estates may be estimated at from £50,000 to £75,000, the annual yield being about 20,000 lbs. of tea. An experiment has recently been made in tea-growing on grass lands. It is too early to predict the result, but if it is even moderately successful, the tea-gardens of the Nílgiris may be developed almost indefinitely. About 4500 hands are employed on the several tea estates. The Madras Government commenced the experimental cultivation of cinchona on the Nílgiris in 1860. There are now 7 plantations, aggregating, by recent survey, 850 acres in extent, and containing 600,000 trees. The total cost to Government up to the end of 1876 had been less than £180,000, and the previous year's crop of bark sold for over £30,000. This success shows that the undertaking has passed out of the region of experiment; and already private enterprise has followed in the steps of Government, and there are now 4 or 5 private cinchona-gardens planted out.

The total area of the District is returned at 978 square miles—704 on the plateau, 35 in the Ochterlony valley, and 239 square miles in the Wainád addition. It is not accurately known how much of this is actually under cultivation, as, owing to the different systems upon which land is granted, the Government accounts in one case show the area of estates without reference to the extent cultivated, and in other cases the area cultivated is the only figure recorded. A regular survey of the District is now in progress. Wages are high. An ordinary

unskilled labourer earns about 8 rupees (16s.) a month; skilled labourers, 12 to 15 rupees (24s. to 30s.); handicraftsmen, 25 to 35 rupees (£2, 10s. to £3, 10s.) when in full work. At particular seasons on the coffee and tea gardens, wages are very high, but the ordinary rate is 4 or 5 *ánnás* a day (6d. to 7½d.) for pickers. The ordinary *ser* for grain in the *bázár* is about a pound and a half, or half the usual Madras measure.

In early traditions of the country, the evidence of the *gudu* or manorial fee paid to the Todas by the immigrant agricultural races who have settled in the country—a *gudu* paid, even by Government, for the occupation of the European settlements on the hills—and the researches of the officers early connected with the administration of the District,—all point to the fact that the nomadic race of Todas were the immemorial and acknowledged owners of the hill plateau, over every part of which they pastured and still pasture, except where occupied, their large herds of buffaloes according to the season. The English rule, however, found the cultivable valleys and hillsides of the eastern and southern the more genial districts of the hills, long more or less completely occupied by villages of immigrant races, who carried on the rude cultivation of their poor dry grains within their rural limits; much as was the case with hill tribes throughout Southern India, wide areas were occupied, and extensive fallows necessarily the rule. These agricultural villages paid *gudu* to the Todas, and a moderate village tribute for this cultivation to the State, from time to time. Conditions were not much altered, save as respects punctuality of payment and more rigid assessment of extended cultivation, during the first half-century of English rule. A *rayatwárí* settlement has since been gradually extended to the village landholders on the hills; and all land within each village, held exclusively, is entered in the individual *patta* or notice of demand, with its assigned assessment, and must be relinquished unless paid for each year, subject to sale in case of retention and final default. The ordinary rules for the occupation of new land under *rayatwárí* settlements still obtain in respect to the extension of cultivation by indigenous races within the area of their village lands, and no change has here been made. On the other hand, as respects larger blocks of unappropriated land sought for, for plantation industry and the like, on the Nílgiri Hills, the land appropriation rules of 1863, settled by the Secretary of State after discussion in Parliament, obtain. The block of land selected by the applicant is, after three months' advertisement, and after demarcation and survey, sold to the highest bidder, whoever he may be. The assessment—8 *ánnás* (1s.) per acre on grass, and 2 rupees (4s.) on forest—is payable in the case of forest land, after three years, in the Wainád, and five years on the plateau; on grass lands, it is payable from the day of sale. Such lands are redeemable in fee-

simple by a single payment of twenty-five times the assessment, a privilege which does not extend to land occupied under the old rules and without auction. The wide and immemorial pasture grounds of the Toda race—practically the whole unappropriated area of the plateau and the hill slopes—have naturally remained unassessed to any land tax; although they may probably be said to have been, or at least at present to be, adequately occupied by the cattle, some 25,000 or 30,000 head, now maintained on them. The natural pasture is exceptionally coarse and innutritious, and the climate of the western and northern districts of the range, which are especially pastoral, is so ungenial as to close them partially against herds for several months of the year; and further, the area of unappropriated land has become seriously narrowed. Tipú Sultán is believed to have asserted a right to pasture the cattle belonging to the Mysore State on the hills; transit duties were levied on the *ghí*, in which the Todas traded with the lowlands; and a kind of *motarfa* tax has at times been levied on the cattle of this pastoral tribe, but no settlement or land tax has been extended to these pastures. Since, however, a demand for land for European occupation has sprung up on the hills, these wide pasture lands have practically been declared Government waste, available for sale and appropriation by Government. However, to each *mand* or Toda hamlet is reserved a 50-acre block of pasture, with a proportion of forest for shade. On this, a rental of 2 annas (3d.) an acre is payable. This represents a reservation in all of some 7000 acres, so that to each adult male Toda there is an allowance of over 30 acres. Practically, the Todas graze their cattle over all waste land, but the reservation has been granted to compensate for the gradual enclosure of private estates. The Toda reserves, however, are intended exclusively for pasture, and, if cultivated, are assessed according to their class. In the European settlements, a few building grants, made before 1863, are held on quit-rents redeemable on twenty years' purchase; but more recent grants are subject to the general conditions specified above, and are not allowed to exceed 10 acres in extent. The only other tenure in the District is that of the *ináms* or glebes of village officers, which are held rent free, and pertain to the office. Transfers of land are frequent and easy. Between natives, these are generally effected by the traditional form of conveyance, and intimated to the Settlement officer. But the European practice of conveying by stamped and registered document is becoming popular. The price of land, of course, varies very much according to class—good forest land in the Wainád and Ochterlony valley sometimes reaching £100 an acre; but £2 to £10 an acre is the average auction price for coffee land.

Natural Calamities.—No famine is ever known to have occurred within the District. But high prices in the plains affect prices here;

and notably in 1877, serious distress was felt among the poorer classes, European as well as native.

Means of Communication.—The District, notwithstanding the difficulties of construction and repair, is fairly supplied with roads; but much yet remains to be done in this respect before the country is fully opened for the introduction of European capital. There are altogether more than 190 miles of road bridged and open for wheeled traffic, of which 125 are on or leading to the plateau, and nearly 70 in south-east Wainád. The principal Nílgiri lines are the Coonoor *ghát* road, and thence to Utákamand, 28 miles; Utákamand to Karkanhali for Mysore, 26; to Gúdalúr, 28; to Kotágiri, 12; to Avalanchi, 14. Several other *gháts* and plateau roads are maintained for pack-bullocks, but are not practicable by carts. A railway from Kállár, at the foot of the *ghát*, to Coonoor (Kúnúr) is at present under contemplation.

Manufactures and Trade.—There are no special manufactures in the District, except the weaving of a coarse cotton cloth by the Badagas. Several European industries, for local purposes solely, exist; and there is one brewery. The trade consists in the import and sale of European goods and food-stuffs, and the export of tea, coffee, and cinchona, and some garden produce. The principal fair of the District is held at Utákamand every Tuesday. At Coonoor a *shandy* is held on Sundays and Tuesdays, and at Kotágiri on Mondays. The *Kadu* festival of the Todas, at which is performed the annual ceremony for the dead, which consists of dancing and slaughtering buffaloes, is held in different localities. The Badagas and Kotas also have annual festivals, which are attended with dancing and music, sacrifices of sheep, buffaloes, etc.

Institutions.—The Nílgiri Library at Utákamand and the Lawrence Asylum at Lovedale are the only institutions deserving notice. The former possesses a handsome building, erected in 1859 at a cost of £3800; its annual income is £644, and it contains reading and writing rooms and about 9000 volumes. The Lawrence Asylum, like other institutions of the same name, is intended for children of British soldiers, whether orphans or not. It accommodates at present 382 children (324 boys and 58 girls). The children are housed, fed, clothed, and educated. They are taught trades, and employment is found for most of them on leaving. Telegraph and survey classes, carpenters', tailors', and shoemakers' shops, and a farm are attached to this institution. It is supervised by a Principal and a Committee, and has an income from all sources of about £15,000, derived from the endowments of the military male Orphan Asylum of Madras, Government grants, and profits on industries. Two English newspapers are published in the District.

Monumental Remains.—A large number of rude stone monuments—cairns, barrows, kistvaens, and cromlechs — are found all over the

plateau, and their origin has been much discussed. The cairns are of several forms,—one commonly called the draw-well kind, consists of a circular wall; others seem to have been regularly built up, but the circle is enclosed by a heap of rough loose stones, sometimes built more carefully on the inner side of the circle, or faced inside with larger slabs, but sloping outside into a tumbled heap. A third kind consists merely of a circle, sometimes of long stones laid round on a sort of ridge, sloping inwards, sometimes of common rough stones embedded in the surface soil. The kistvaens are situated below Kotágiri. In these is found pottery with a rich red glaze, and many of the clay figures are represented with a high Tartar head-dress. These remains, says Dr. Caldwell, are not claimed by any of the races now existing on the hills, and seem to be of considerable antiquity. One of the cairns of this description opened by Mr. Breeks had an immense tree growing out of it and over it, which was estimated to be at least 800 years old. The most numerous of these remains are the cairns and barrows, which resemble each other, and which are found most often in groups and on the tops of hills and ridges. A few may be seen on the eastern sides of the Kúndas near the Avalanchi bungalow. In recent researches, more than 40 of these have been broken up, and were found to contain bronze vessels, such as vases, urns, etc., domestic utensils, glazed pottery, and spear-heads. One theory attributes them to Scythian ancestors of the Todas; but against this is the fact that the Todas offer not the slightest objection to these remains being opened and their contents carried away. Though they use them as burial-places, they themselves attribute their origin to a race who lived anterior to them, and sometimes to the Kurumbas. Dr. Shortt writes: 'It is generally believed by the natives that these cairns and cromlechs are the work of the followers of the Pandian kings, who at one time ruled on the Nílgiris. The Badagas likewise believe this, while some of them attribute them to the Kurumbas. The Rev. Mr. Metz is also of the latter opinion, and I am inclined to coincide with this gentleman. We know that the Kurumbas were at one time scattered all over Southern India, and were driven by their conquerors to the jungles and hills they at present occupy. Dr. Caldwell perhaps rightly calls them "Scytho-Druidical" remains, as they appear to partake both of the Scythian and Druidical in structure, etc. Similar remains are found in most Madras Districts, and indeed in many other parts of India.'

Administration.—The total revenue from all sources in 1868-69, the year in which the Nílgiri Commission was first established, was £10,063, and the expenditure on civil administration, £32,906; in 1874-75, the revenue had increased to £20,507, and the expenditure to £41,491. The principal sources of revenue in 1874-75 were—land, £4551;

ábkári or excise, £7276; forests, £2692; and post office, £2936. Principal items of expenditure—administrative and public departments, £10,195; law and justice, £6542; ecclesiastical and medical services, £7505; superannuation, etc. allowances, £3061; land revenue, £5720; forests, £6586; post office, £17,247. The number of magisterial courts in 1875-76 was 6, and of civil and revenue courts, 4. The aggregate strength of the police in 1875 was 141 men, maintained at a cost of £1193. The number of arrests made was 373, with 222 convictions. There are 2 prisons in the District, the jail at Utákamand and the European prison. There are also 2 subsidiary jails, one at Wellington and one at Coonoor (Kúnúr). The average daily number of prisoners during 1875 was 470. Out of a population of 49,501 in 1871-72, 3990, or 8·1 per cent. (266 of whom were females), could read and write. Among the hill tribes, education has made but little progress. The only two schools of importance are the Lawrence Asylum, Lovedale, and the Breeks' Memorial School at Utákamand. The former has been already referred to; the latter, founded in memory of the first Commissioner, is an efficient middle-class school.

Medical Aspects.—Situated as these hills are, at an average elevation of 6000 feet; equidistant from two seas; sharing two monsoons; and isolated from mountains of similar height, they possess a climate which, for equability of temperature, for mildly invigorating qualities, for great salubrity, and for immunity from the disturbing influences common to the climate of most hill stations, is almost unrivalled within the tropics. The average temperature deduced from the mean of twenty-five months has been fixed at 58° F. The hottest season is in April and May, but its occurrence depends upon the character and period of setting in of the south-west monsoon. The extreme range of temperature, from sunrise to 2 P.M., averages commonly 16° F. throughout the year.

Nílgirí.—Native State of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 21° 18′ 50″ and 21° 37′ N. lat., and between 86° 29′ and 86° 51′ 30″ E. long. Area, 278 square miles; pop. (1872), 33,944. Bounded on the north and west by the State of Morbhanj, and on the east and south by Balasor District. One-third of the area consists of uncultivated mountain land; one-third of waste jungle; and the remaining third is under cultivation. Valuable quarries of black stone are worked, from which are made cups, bowls, platters, etc. Of the total population in 1872 (33,944), 28,050 were Hindus, 19 Musalmáns, 35 Christians, and 5840 of other denominations. The aboriginal population is mainly composed of Bhumijs. The total number of villages was returned in 1872 at 264. The capital and residence of the Rájá is situated in lat. 21° 27′ 20″ N., and long. 86° 48′ 41″ E. The State yields a revenue estimated at £2179, and pays a tribute of £390 to the British Government. The

Rájá's militia consists of 28 men, and the police force of 76 men. The State contains 18 schools.

Níl Nág.—Lake in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab, giving rise to a stream which joins the Jhelum (Jhílam) near Barámulá. Situated in lat. 33° 48′ N., and long. 74° 47′ E. (Thornton), on the north-eastern declivity of the Pír Panjal Mountain, 21 miles south-west of Srínagar. Held in great veneration by the Hindus.

Nilwála.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £245; tribute of £51 is paid to the British Government, and £15 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Nímach (*Neemuch*).—A town and British cantonment, in the territory of Gwalior, or the possessions of Sindhia; situated in lat. 24° 27′ 38″ N., and long. 74° 54′ 15″ E., on the north-western border of Málwá, and at a short distance from the boundary separating that tract of country from the State of Mewar in Rájputána. The British territory here was formerly limited to the site of the cantonment and some acres adjoining, sold to us by Daulat Ráo Sindhia in 1817, according to the provisions of the treaty of Gwalior concluded in that year, as space required by the British Government for stationing a force in the Málwá territory. By a later treaty, however, some more land in the vicinity was obtained. A small fort has been constructed to accommodate the families of the military when called to a distance on duty; it is at present used as a magazine. The climate of Nímach is agreeable, never exhibiting either extreme heat or extreme cold. Its elevation above the sea level is 1476 feet; and even at the hottest season the nights are generally cool. The village of Nímach occupies a rising ground about three-quarters of a mile from the cantonment; its population is roughly estimated at 4000. It is distant 155 miles north-west of Mhow, 371 south-west of Delhi, 312 south-west of Agra, 306 miles west of Ságar, 1114 miles west of Calcutta *viâ* Allahábád and Ságar.

Nimal.—Town in Bannu (Bunnoo) District, Punjab. —*See* NAMAL.

Nimár.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 4′ and 22° 26′ N. lat., and between 75° 50′ and 77° 1′ E. long. It forms the westernmost District of the Central Provinces; and is bounded on the north and west by the territories of the Ponwár of Dhár and of the Mahárájá Holkar, on the south by Khandesh District and West Berar, and on the east by Hoshangábád. Pop. (1872), 211,176; area, 3340 square miles. The headquarters of the District are at KHANDWA, which is rapidly taking the place of BURHANPUR as the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—The modern District of Nimár consists of two river valleys, parted by a range of hills. It includes but a small portion of the ancient Hindu Province of Pránt Nimár, which occupied

the whole of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, for about 225 miles, from 74° to 77° 10′ E. long. On the other hand, the Tápti valley was no part of old Piánt Nimár, but belonged to the Hindu Province of Talner, subsequently called by the Muhammadans Khandesh. The northern section of the District in the Narbadá valley is broken by low irregular hills, and nowhere presents the open level surface of the fertile Districts higher up the river. It is drained by the Suktá, Abná, Waná, Bhám, Báldí, and Phiprár, which unite in a considerable stream, the Chhota Tawá, before joining the Narbadá, and by the Ajnál, Káveri, and Bákúr, which fall directly into that river. In the north-east corner, a large tract of waste extends along the Chhota Tawá and the Narbadá; but the rest of this region is fairly well cultivated, though the barren ridges which cut up the country in every direction prevent it from presenting a flourishing appearance. Its average elevation above the sea is 1000 feet. The southern section of the District in the Tápti valley is more open and fertile. Towards the west, it is carefully cultivated. But higher up the valley, the land, though exceedingly rich, lies utterly desolate; and instead of the thriving villages which occupied it during the Muhammadan period, now only a few Kurkús carry on a rude tillage here and there in a deadly climate. This part of Nimár has an average elevation above the sea of 850 feet. The irregular and broken range which divides the two valleys has a width of about 15 miles; and is the only part of the great hilly backbone of the Central Provinces marked in maps as the Sátpura chain, which is really known by that name to the people. On its highest point, about 850 feet above the plain, stands the fortress of ASIRGARH, commanding a pass through the hills which has for centuries been the chief highway between Upper India and the Deccan. The Hattís, another branch of the same great range, with a height above sea level of from 2000 to 3000 feet, form the southern boundary of the District. On their other face, they rise steeply from the plains of Berar; but the ascent from the Tápti valley is long and gradual, including some plateaux of considerable extent, with excellent soil here and there. Geologically considered, the country consists almost entirely of trap. In far the greater portion, the traps are horizontal; but in the low hills west of Asírgarh, there is a strong southern dip, in places amounting to 15°. Coal is entirely wanting; but iron-ore is found in the Dhár forest near Punása and Chándgarh.

Of the extensive forests in Nimár, the only tract reserved by Government is the Punása forest, which stretches for about 120 miles along the south bank of the Narbadá, and contains very fine young teak (Tectona grandis), besides *saj* (Terminalia tomentosa), and *anjan* (Hardwickia binata) of great size. The south-eastern corner of the District, in the Tápti valley, is also covered with a promising young forest of teak and other timber, over an area of about 400 square

miles; and a similar forest exists in *parganá* Chándgarh, north of the Narbadá. There is, besides, much land overspread by low jungle. Tigers are numerous, and are easily got at along most of the rivers in the hot season. Cattle and game being easily procurable by them, the Nimár tigers seldom become regular man-eaters. Bears, leopards, and wolves are common in some parts, and also *sámbhar* and spotted deer. The Upper Tápti valley is a favourite haunt of the bison (Bos frontalis), and *nílgái* and wild hogs abound throughout the District. Of small game, painted partridge, quail, hares, and pea-fowl are the chief. Jungle-fowl are found in the Tápti valley; and the larger rivers yield excellent fish. A shooting party has only to bring tents and horses to the Lál-bágh railway station, where cart-carriage is always available for hire, and march 15 or 20 miles up the Mohná valley, south-east of Burhánpur, to be in the centre of a very sportsman's paradise. It is useless, however, to attempt such an expedition earlier than March, when the jungle grass is burnt.

The principal places of interest in Nimár District, besides ASIRGARH, are—KHANDWA and RAVER, in the Narbadá valley; BURHANPUR, in the valley of the Tápti; and MANDHATA, the island in the Narbadá sacred to Siva.

History.—Nimár has always been a border land. Even its hill tribes belong to two distinct races, the Bhíls and Kols of Western India here meeting the Gonds and Kurkús from the east. The earliest figures, whether of legend or history, are those of the Haihaya kings, who ruled Akrant Nimár from Máhismatí, the modern Maheswar, till they were expelled by the Bráhmans. The new rulers introduced the worship of Siva on the island of Mándháta. At first the Bráhman gods found supporters in the Chauhán Rájputs, who held Asírgarh, though their capital was at Makávatí (Garha Mandla); but subsequently the Pramára Rájputs, who founded the great Buddhist kingdom of Málwá, seized Asírgarh. A branch of this family called Ták held the fortress from the 9th to the 12th century, and are often commemorated by the poet Chánd as leaders in the Hindu armies battling in Northern India against the Muhammadan invader. During this period, the Jain religion, a schism from Buddhism, prevailed in Nimár, and numerous remains of finely carved Jain temples still exist at Khandwá and near Mándháta. Before the invasion of the Muhammadans, however, the Chauháns appear to have recovered Asírgarh and the southern part of the District. In 1295, Sultán Alá-ud-dín, returning from his bold raid into the Deccan, took that stronghold, and put all the Chauháns but one to the sword. About this time, Northern Nimár came into the possession of a Bhíl, Alá Rájá, whose descendants are still to be found in the chiefs of Bhámgarh, Mándháta, and Silání. Ferishta, indeed, relates a story of a shepherd chief called Asá ruling over all Southern Nimár, and building the fort

which from Asá the Ahír (a herdsman) took the name of Asírgarh. But it is almost certain that the country was wholly in the hands of the Chauhán and Bhilála Rájás at the time of the Muhammadan conquest. About 1387, Northern Nimár became part of the independent Muhammadan kingdom of Málwá, with its capital at Mándú on the Vindhyán Hills. Before this, in 1370, Malak Rájá Fárrúkhí had obtained Southern Nimár, then unconquered, from the Delhi Emperor. He reduced the Tápti valley; and was succeeded by his son, Nasír Khán, who captured Asírgarh, and founded the cities of Burhánpur and Zainábád. For eleven generations, from 1399 to 1600, the Fárrúkhí dynasty of Khandesh ruled at Burhánpur; but their powerful neighbours of Guzerat and Málwá rendered their independence little more than nominal, and Burhánpur was several times sacked by invading armies. In 1600, the great Emperor Akbar annexed Nimár and Khandesh, capturing Asírgarh by blockade from Bahádur Khán, the last of the Fárrúkhís. Akbar divided Northern Nimár into the Districts of Bijágarh and Handiá, and attached it to the *Súbah* of Málwá. Southern Nimár became part of *Súbah* Khandesh. The Prince Dányál was made Governor of the Deccan, with his seat at Burhánpur, where he drank himself to death in 1605. Under the enlightened rule of Akbar and his successors, Nimár reached the highest degree of prosperity it has ever known. The plains and valleys were carefully cultivated; the roads were thronged with traffic between Málwá and the Deccan; and everywhere rest-houses and wells, aqueducts and reservoirs, studded the District. In 1670, the Marhattás first invaded Khandesh, and wasted the country up to the gates of Burhánpur. During successive harvest seasons, they returned; and, in 1684, plundered the city itself immediately after Aurangzeb had left it with his unwieldy army to subdue the Deccan. By 1690, they had overrun Northern Nimár; and in 1716, the *chauth*, or fourth of all revenues, and the *sardesmukhí*, or tenth part of the land revenue, were formally conceded to them by the Mughals. Four years later, the Nizám, Asaf Jáh, seized the Government of the Deccan. At first he confirmed the alienations of revenue to the Marhattás; but disputes soon arose, and the Peshwá repeatedly plundered the District, until he acquired Northern Nimár by the Treaty of 1740. Fifteen years afterwards, Southern Nimár was also ceded to the Peshwá, except Burhánpur and Asírgarh, which, however, followed in 1760. Under the Peshwá's Government, the District recovered from the evils which had befallen it during the struggle between Mughal and Marhattá. In 1778, the whole of the present District, except *parganás* Kánápur and Beriá, was transferred to Mahárájá Sindhia. Holkar, at the same time, acquired nearly all the rest of Óránt Nimár. Up to 1800, the District enjoyed tolerable peace; but from that year till 1818, it was subject to one increasing round of invasion and plunder, still known as the 'time of

trouble,' from which it has not yet recovered. In 1803, a terrible famine befel the country, and in the same year Southern Nimár was taken by the British after the battle of Assaye, but restored to Sindhia. During the next fifteen years, the District was constantly pillaged by Holkar's officers, by the Pindárís, and by the rebellious deputies of Sindhia himself. The Pindárís, in fact, were at home in Nimár; their chief camps were in the dense wilds of Handiá, between the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and the Vindhyán Hills; and it was in a Nimár jungle that their daring leader Chitú was killed by a tiger. The last Peshwá, Bájí Ráo, made his way to Nimár after his defeat in the Deccan, and surrendered to Sir John Malcolm in 1818. Asirgarh, in which Apá Sáhib, the former Rájá of Nágpur, had taken refuge, was reduced by the British troops in the same year. We thus acquired *parganás* Kánápur and Beriá as successors to the Peshwá, while Asírgarh and 17 villages round it were retained after the siege. The rest of Nimár came under our management by treaty with Sindhia in 1824. In 1854, several *parganás* were transferred from Hoshangábád to Nimár; and in 1860, Sindhia's *parganás* of Zainábád and Mánjrod, with the city of Burhánpur, were obtained by exchange. At the same time, all the *parganás* which we had managed for Sindhia since 1824 became British in full sovereignty. Lastly, in 1867, 3 *parganás* in the north-west corner of the District—Kasráwad, Dhargáon, and Barwái — together with Mandleswar, were transferred to Mahárájá Holkar in exchange for some territory in the Deccan.

When the District of Nimár first came under British management in 1818, the country was nearly desolate. With the revival of peace, however, many of the cultivators returned to their homes; and the Bhíls, who at first proved troublesome, were quieted, chiefly by the efforts of Captain (afterwards Sir James) Outram. Unfortunately, our early fiscal administration was unsuccessful. The District was greatly over-assessed, and the revenue farmed to speculators on short leases, while nothing was effected to assist the down-trodden cultivators. At length, in 1845, the farming system utterly broke down, and all the villages were again taken under direct management. The ancient hereditary *pátels* or village head-men regained their proper position; the cultivators were secured in possession at a moderate assessment; agriculture was encouraged; old tanks repaired and new ones constructed; and through the efforts chiefly of Captains French, Evans, and Keatinge, Nimár entered on a fresh period of prosperity. When the Mutiny broke out in 1857, Asírgarh and Burhánpur were garrisoned by a detachment of the Gwalior contingent. Major Keatinge collected a local force, and fortified the Katí Ghátí Pass on the southern road, besides the old fort at Punása, where the European families took refuge with the treasure. The Asírgarh troops were afterwards quietly disarmed

by a detachment of Bombay infantry. In 1858, Tántiá Topi traversed the District with a numerous body of starving followers, who plundered the country on their way, and burned the police buildings at Píplod, Khandwá, and Mokalgáon. The people of the District, however, showed no signs of disaffection during the Mutiny.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Nimár at 190,561 souls. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 211,176. The latest estimate, in 1877, indicates a total of 221,946. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 211,176 persons, on an area of 3340 square miles, residing in 648 villages or townships and in 42,164 houses; persons per square mile, 63·23; villages per square mile, 0·19; houses per square mile, 12·62; persons per village, 325·88; persons per house, 5·01. Classified according to sex —males, 112,440; females, 98,736. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 39,182; the female children, 35,043. Ethnical division in 1877—Europeans, 232; Eurasians, 72; aboriginal tribes, 35,566; Hindus, 162,791; Muhammadans, 22,543; Buddhists and Jains, 572. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Bhíls, 18,420 in 1872, who supply the hereditary watchmen to nearly every village in Nimár; the remainder consisting of Bhílals, Kurkús, Gonds, etc. Among Hindus, the Bráhmans numbered 10,728, and the Rájputs, 15,054. The mass of the Hindu population consisted of Dhers or Mhars, 19,276; Kunbis, 18,973; and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 136.

Division into Town and Country.—There are only 2 towns in Nimár District with a population in 1872 exceeding 5000, viz. KHANDWA, the District capital (pop. 14,119), and BURHANPUR (29,303). Townships of 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 26; from 200 to 1000, 223; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 397. In the year 1876-77, Burhánpur had a population within municipal limits of 31,101. Its total revenue amounted to £3405, of which £2758 was derived from taxation, being 1s. 9d. per head; total expenditure, £4305. Khandwá, with a population of 14,985, had a total revenue of £2603, of which £2068 was derived from taxation, being 2s. 9d. per head; total expenditure, £2159. Besides these cities, the small municipalities of Borgáon Shahra, Mándháta, and Zainábád, with an aggregate population of 6681, had a total revenue of £199, entirely derived from taxation, and expended £164.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3340 square miles, only 581 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 1007 square miles are returned as cultivable; 96 acres are irrigated by Government works, and 9161 by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 11d. per acre of cultivated land, or 1s. 3d. on the cultivable

land. The prevailing soil throughout the District is a stiff brown soil termed *mál*, which will not, in ordinary seasons, bear a *rabí* crop without irrigation, but yields excellent rain crops. Hence the autumn harvest greatly preponderates over the spring harvest. In 1876, wheat occupied 194,118, and other food grains, 383,057 acres; 59,047 acres were devoted to oil-seeds, and 17,318 to rice, while sugar-cane was grown on 8577, cotton on 2209, and opium on 1871 acres. The out-turn of wheat from average land is about 280 lbs. per acre; inferior grain, 160 lbs.; oil-seeds, 120 lbs.; rice, 320 lbs.; cotton, 30 lbs.; opium, 8 lbs. Little manure is wasted in Nimár, though its use is generally confined to the better soils, the poorer being treated to a periodical fallow instead. Irrigation from wells, and also from dams thrown across the smaller streams, is resorted to for opium, tobacco, *gánjá*, wheat, gram, sugar-cane, chillies, and garden stuffs. Altogether, the Nimár cultivator is both skilful and industrious, and well understands the value of manure, irrigation, and rotation of crops. The very fine mango and *mahuá* trees, which abound throughout Nimár, add considerably to the wealth of the landholding classes. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 1380 proprietors, of whom 785 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 9627, of whom 1530 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 8058 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land were returned as follows in 1876:—Land suited for wheat, 4s.; for inferior grain or oil-seeds, 1s.; for rice, 10s.; for sugar-cane, 6s.; for cotton, 2s.; for opium, 6s. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Wheat, 9s. 6d.; linseed and rice, 10s. 11d.; raw sugar (*gúr*), 17s. 9d.; cotton, 43s. 8d. The wages per diem of a skilled labourer averaged 1s. 3d.; of an unskilled labourer, 5d.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of weekly *bázárs*, held in twenty-four of the principal towns, and by large fairs which take place every September at Singájí and every October at Mándháta. The other yearly fairs are of less importance. At these gatherings, English piece and other goods, country cloth, copper vessels, and cattle form the chief articles of traffic. Wheat from Hoshangábád is the principal import. The exports consist almost entirely of the fine gold-embroidered cloth fabrics made at Burhánpur; the gum of the *dháurá* tree (Conocarpus latifolia), of which there are large forests north of the Narbadá, is also exported, to be converted into the gum-arabic of commerce. A considerable through traffic is carried on in Nimár. There were, in 1877, 40 miles of roads of the first, and 71 miles of the second class in the District. The principal road connects Khandwá with Indore. It carries a very large traffic in opium, cotton, etc., and has travellers' bungalows and rest-houses at easy stages. The road towards Hoshangábád for Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) runs easterly up the valley from Khandwá. It was never metalled, nor

thoroughly bridged, and, except for local communication, is now superseded by the railway. The other lines are merely fair-weather tracks. The principal are a road passing east and west through the northern part of the District by Ghisúr, Mundí, and Punása, to Barwái; another from Khandwá running south to the important town of Borgáon; and a third from Burhánpur penetrating the Upper Tápti valley as far as Gángrá in Berar, which is much used by Banjára carriers, and for the export of forest produce. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway traverses the District throughout, with stations at Lál-bágh for Burhánpur, Chándní for Asírgarh, Dongargáon for Pandháná, Khandwá, Jáwar, and Bír for Mundí.

Administration.—In 1864, Nimár was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1876-77, £42,956, of which the land yielded £16,184. Cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £16,747. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts, 16; magistrates, 14. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 40 miles; average distance, 6 miles. Number of police, 447 men, costing £6490; being 1 policeman to about every 8 miles and to every 503 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 55, of whom 5 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £513. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 103, attended by 3896 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the open parts of Nimár is, on the whole, good, though the heat is very fierce in the Narbadá and Tápti valleys during April and May. Central Nimár does not suffer excessive heat in summer, while during the monsoon months the air is cool and clear. In 1876, the total rainfall at the civil station was returned at 25·83 inches, all of which fell between June and September. The average rainfall is 35·19 inches. The jungle parts of the District are extremely malarious from July to December, and are consequently inhabited only by Kurkús and other hill tribes. The average temperature in the shade in 1876 is returned as follows:—May, highest reading 113·5° F., lowest 77·2°; July, highest 103°, lowest 72°; December, highest 88°, lowest 41·7° F. The prevalent disease is fever, especially about the close of the monsoon. Cholera used to be an almost annual scourge, but since the stoppage in 1864 of the great religious gatherings in the Upper Narbadá valley during the hot season, cholera has rarely been epidemic. In 1876, 4 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 19,727 in-door and out-door patients. Vital statistics in that year showed a death-rate of 36·52 per thousand, the mean of the previous five years being 37·89 per thousand, which is the highest ratio in the Central Provinces.

Nimgiri.—Range of mountains in the North Jáipur country, Vizagapatam District, Madras—lat. 19° 45′ N., long. 82° 30′ E.—rising to a height of 5000 feet, and running parallel to the main chain of the Eastern Gháts, from which it is separated by valleys not a quarter of a mile in width. The Languliyá and Vamsádhára river rises in this range. The road from Bissemkatak to Singapur crosses the Nimgiris by the Papekonmama gorge.

Nímkhar (or *Nimsár*).—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated on the left bank of the Gumti, 20 miles from Sítápur town, in lat. 27° 20′ 55″ N., and long. 80° 31′ 40″ E. Pop. (1869), 2307, chiefly Bráhmans and their dependants. Nímkhar is a place of great sanctity, with numerous tanks and temples. A tradition relates that it was in one of these holy tanks that Ráma washed away his sin of having slain a Bráhman in the person of Rávana, the demon king of Ceylon, who had carried off his wife Sítá.

Nimkhera.—One of the petty States of the Bhíl Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India; situated among the spurs of the Vindhyán range. It contains several well-wooded valleys. Under a settlement effected by Sir John Malcolm, the Bhúmia or chief holds the village of Tirla in hereditary succession, paying an annual tribute of about £50 to the State of Dhar, and is answerable for all robberies between Dhar and Sultánpur. The present Bhúmia is named Duriao Sinh.

Nímuniá (*Nimuia*).—Village in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 45′ 30″ N., long. 85° 6′ E.; pop. (1872), 5108.

Nindo Shahr.—Municipal village in the Badin *táluk* of Tanda Sub-District, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) Collectorate, Sind; situated on the left bank of the Sherwáh, 69 miles south-east of Haidarábád city. Roads to Wango Bázár, Kadhan, Luári, and Wahnái. Headquarters of a *tappádár*. Pop. (1872), 1439; revenue (1873-74), £225. Trade in grain, dates, *ghí*, sugar, molasses, cocoa-nuts, cochineal, cotton, drugs, and cloth. Transit trade in millet and cloth. An unhealthy and low-lying town, built about 110 years ago by Nindo Khán Tálpur. Lat. 24° 37′ 30″ N., long. 69° 5′ E.

Nipání.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay; situated on the road from Belgáum to Kolhápur, 45 miles north-west of Belgáum town, in lat. 16° 23′ 40″ N., and long. 74° 25′ 10″ E. Pop. (1872), 9371. Nipání is a municipality with an income of £572. The estate of which this town was the principal place lapsed to the British Government in 1840, upon the demise of its proprietor, and was annexed in 1842. In the following year, the fort was dismantled. Post office.

Nír.—Rich agricultural village in Hardoi District, Oudh; 6 miles south-east of Hardoi town. Pop. (1869), 2481, chiefly Chamárs. It was founded by Nír Sinh, a Chamár-Gaur in the service of the Hindu kings

of Kanauj, who drove the Thatheras out of their stronghold at Besohra, and utterly destroyed it. A ruined mound of brick still marks its site.

Nirgunda.—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 47′ N., long. 76° 15′ E.; pop. (1871), 241. Once the capital of a Jain principality of the same name, included in the Kongu-Karnáta empire 1500 years ago. According to tradition, it was founded 150 B.C. by a king from the north called Nila Sekhara, who gave it the name of Nilávati-patna. The name of Nirgunda is found on the celebrated Merkárá plates of the 5th century A.D. Mounds of ruins and several old temples are still in existence, with a Ballála inscription of 1056.

Niti.—Mountain pass in Garhwál District, Punjab, leading over the main Himálayan system into Thibet. Lat. 30° 46′ 10″ N., long. 79° 51′ 50″ E.; lies along the course of the Dhauli river, and has an elevation above sea level of 16,570 feet.

Nizámpatam.—Seaport in Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 15° 54′ 30″ N., long. 80° 42′ 35″ E.; pop. (1871), 3034; number of houses, 576. Frequented by native craft (in 1874-75, 206 vessels of 10,255 tons) engaged in the coasting trade.

Nizám's Dominions.—State of Southern India.—*See* HAIDARABAD.

Noákhálí (*Noacolly*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 20° 22′ and 23° 17′ 30″ N. lat., and between 90° 43′ and 91° 40′ E. long. Area in 1878, after recent transfers, 1852 square miles; population (according to Census of 1872, but making allowance for the transfers referred to), 949,616. The District forms a portion of the Chittagong Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Tipperah and the State of Hill Tipperah; on the east by Hill Tipperah and the District of Chittagong, and by the eastern mouth of the Meghná, known as the Sandwíp (Sundeep) Channel; on the south by the Bay of Bengal; and on the west by the main stream of the Meghná. The administrative headquarters are at the town of SUDHARAM or Noákhálí.

Physical Aspects.—Noákhálí District consists of an alluvial tract of mainland, together with several islands at the mouth of the Meghná. The mainland portion is intersected by water-courses in all directions; and during the rainy season, the whole country is submerged, with the exception of the villages, which are generally built on artificially raised sites. The tanks are usually embanked, in order to keep out the surface water. In general, each homestead is surrounded by a thick grove of betel and cocoa-nut palms. In the north-west of the District, dense forests of betel-nut palms extend for miles. As in most deltaic tracts, the level of the land between the river channels is lower than that bordering on them. The District is very fertile, and, with the exception of some sandbanks and recent accretions, every part of it is under continuous cultivation. The only hill in Noákhálí is part of Raghunandan Hill,

locally called Baraiár Dálá, in the extreme north-east of the District; it is said to be 600 feet above the level of the sea. The river MEGHNA enters the District from Tipperah, and, after flowing along its western boundary, enters the sea by a number of mouths, the principal being the Sháhbázpur, the Hátiá, the Bámní, and the Sandwíp rivers—all of which are navigable throughout the year. The principal tributaries of the Meghná are the Dákátiá and the Bará Phení (Great Fenny), both navigable throughout the year. The banks of the Meghná are either sloping or abrupt and undermined, according as alluvion or diluvion is taking place. Where the older formations abut on the river, the banks are cultivated; newly formed soil is commonly used as pasture ground. The principal islands formed by the river are along the sea face—Sandwíp, Hátiá, Lawrence *char*, Síbnáth *char*, Túm *char*, Bikatshu Kálí *char*, and Lakhshmidiá *char*. The process of alluvion is proceeding at a rapid rate. Dr. Hooker wrote in 1854: 'The mainland of Noákhálí is gradually extending seawards, and has advanced 4 miles within twenty-three years.' In the last century, the river reached up to the headquarters station of Sudhárám, which is at present 8 miles from the bank. The alluvial accretions to the south are now being cut away, and it is possible that the Meghná may again for a time approach the station. But notwithstanding all temporary checks, the process of land-making is slowly but surely going on to the south and west, as is clearly indicated by a comparison of Rennel's Atlas with the recent Survey Maps. On the southern side of the mainland, and to the east of Hátiá Island, the localities most exposed to the full sweep of the tide, diluvion takes place to a great extent; but the loss from this cause is more than compensated for by alluvion. The estuary of the Meghná being encumbered with shoals and islands, there are two tidal waves. At every full and new moon, especially at the time of the equinox, a 'bore' or tidal wave runs up for several successive days. It is highest at the mouth of the Phení river and in the channel between Hátiá and the mainland, where the tides meet; and it is felt as far up as Bhawáníganj. The wave presents the appearance of a wall of water, sometimes 20 feet in height, with a velocity of 15 miles an hour. There are two canals in the District, and 15 ferries, yielding revenue to Government. The average annual number of deaths by drowning during the ten years ending 1873 was 242. The wild animals of Noákhálí include tiger, leopard, buffalo, boar, and several kinds of deer; of small game there are hares, pheasants, partridges, quail, plovers, snipe, duck, teal, etc.

History.—Little is known of the early history of Noákhálí; but it is supposed that the first Muhammadan settlements were made at the time of the invasion of South-Eastern Bengal by Muhammad Taghral, in 1279 A.D. In 1353, the country was overrun by Shams-ud-dín, Governor of Bengal. In 1583, when the Afgháns were defeated by

Khán Azím, many of them fled to the frontier, and some, in all probability, took refuge in these parts. A few of the early Arab settlers in Sind and along the Malabar coast may have found their way hither by sea, prior to any of the above-named immigrations, as the writings of the early Arab geographers show that they had some knowledge of this coast. Cæsar Frederick, the Venetian traveller, in 1565 described the inhabitants of Sandwíp as 'Moors,' and stated that the island was one of the most fertile places in the country, densely populated, and well cultivated. Provisions, he says, were very cheap; and he adds that two hundred ships were laden yearly with salt, and that such was the abundance of materials for shipbuilding that the Sultán of Constantinople found it cheaper to have his vessels built here than at Alexandria. Purchas, *circa* 1620 A.D., mentions that most of the inhabitants near the shore were Muhammadans; and there are several mosques on Sandwíp Island two hundred years old, and others at Bájrá and elsewhere on the mainland of a still greater age. The Muhammadan population of the islands around the mouths of the Meghná practised piracy up to a comparatively recent date. The last pirate of note was Dilál, Rájá of Sandwíp, who kept a small army in his pay. He was eventually captured by the Nawáb of Bengal, and ended his days in an iron cage at Murshidábád.

The Portuguese at one time played an important part in the affairs of this portion of the country. They first made their appearance about the end of the 16th century, when they are mentioned as being in the employ of the Rájá of Arakan, many of them holding high commands, and possessing extensive grants on the mainland and in the adjacent islands. In 1607, they gave offence to the Rájá of Arakan, who determined to expel them from his dominions. Many of them were put to death; but a number escaped in small vessels, and betook themselves to the congenial occupation of piracy, for which the numerous islands at the mouths of the Ganges afforded ample scope. Against these pirates the Mughal governor of Sandwíp, Fateh Khán, sent an expedition of 40 vessels and 600 soldiers, having first ordered all the Portuguese on the island to be put to death. His fleet engaged the Portuguese off the island of Dakshin Sháhbázpur; and the result was most disastrous to the Mughals, Fateh Khán and the greater part of his troops being killed, and the whole of his ships captured. Elated by this victory, the pirates elected as their chief one Sebastian Gonzales, a common sailor, and resolved to establish for themselves a permanent settlement on the island of Sandwíp. In 1609, they besieged and captured the fort in which the Muhammadan troops had taken refuge. Having thus made himself master of the island, Gonzales in a short time had an armed force under his command, consisting of 1000 Portuguese, 2000 Indian soldiers, 200 cavalry, and 80 vessels, well

armed with cannon, with which he seized the islands of Sháhbázpur and Pátelbanga. In 1610, the Rájá of Arakan entered into an alliance with the Portuguese to invade Bengal, the former by land, and the latter, with the fleet under the command of Gonzales, by sea. At first they met with little opposition, and both Lakshmipur and Bhuluá, in the present District of Noákhálí, fell into their hands; but they were afterwards defeated by the Mughal troops, and pursued nearly as far as Chittagong. On hearing of the defeat of his ally, the Rájá of Arakan, Gonzales treacherously put to death the captains of the ships, seized the fleet, and proceeded to plunder the Arakan coast. He was repulsed, however, in an attack upon the capital; and thereupon induced the Portuguese Viceroy of Goa to despatch an expedition against Arakan, with a view to annexing the country. An expedition, under the command of Don Francis de Menesis, was accordingly fitted out, and in October 1615 arrived at Arakan, where it was subsequently joined by Gonzales with 50 ships. On the 15th November, a combined attack was made. The Arakanese were assisted by some Dutch vessels, and after an obstinate fight, which lasted all day, they compelled the Portuguese to retire. After this defeat the enterprise was abandoned, and the expedition returned to Goa. In the following year, Sandwíp was invaded by the Rájá of Arakan, who defeated Gonzales, and took possession of the island.

When Sháistá Khán came to Bengal as Nawáb or Governor, in 1664, he resolved to rid the country of the piratical horde which had so long devastated it; and he intended, after doing this, to attack the King of Arakan, according to the orders of Aurangzeb. Seeing, however, that it was impossible, owing to the nature of the country, to transport an army by land from Bengal to Arakan, and fearing that the pirates would prevent his taking his troops by sea, he determined to interest the Dutch in his designs. With this object, he sent an ambassador to Batavia to treat for the joint occupation of Arakan. The Batavian general consented, and despatched two vessels of war to Bengal in order to assist in the transport of the Mughal troops. In the meantime, Sháistá Khán, having prepared a large transport fleet, threatened the pirates with annihilation, telling them of the designs of Aurangzeb on Arakan, and adding that a powerful army of Dutch was close at hand. By such threats and the most liberal promises of land and pay if they would leave the service of the Arakan Rájá and enter that of Aurangzeb, he cajoled them into landing in Bengal with their wives and children. The Nawáb received them with open arms, overwhelmed them with favours, and placed their families in Dacca. Then, without giving them time to cool, he made them join his entire army in the attack and capture of the island of Sandwíp, then in the hands of the Rájá of Arakan. From Sandwíp he passed with all his forces to

Chittagong, which was taken in 1666. His purpose being accomplished, and having in his power the wives and families of the Portuguese, he ridiculed all his liberal promises; taunted the pirates with having abandoned the Arakan Rájá, their master; and treated them with great severity. They never recovered their independence; and their descendants have gradually sunk to the level of the natives, whose dress and customs they have for the most part adopted. They are Christians, and retain the old Portuguese names.

About 1756, the East India Company established factories in Noákhálí and Tipperah, ruins of some of which still remain. In 1790, a salt agent was appointed at Sudhárám to superintend the manufacture of salt on the *chars.* Much of the salt thus made was exported to Chittagong, and thence to Calcutta.

Population.—Previous to 1872, several attempts were made to ascertain approximately the population of Noákhálí. In 1850, it was estimated at 352,975 souls; in 1856, at 438,456; and in 1865, at 293,540. According to an estimate based on an enumeration of the houses in 1868, the population was returned at 348,250. All these estimates were, in 1872, found to be much below the truth, the Census of that year disclosing a population (exclusive of Mirkásarái and Chhágalnáiyá *thánás*, afterwards transferred to the District from Chittagong and Tipperah respectively) of 713,934 persons, dwelling in 2034 villages and in 142,155 houses; average density, 459 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·31; houses per square mile, 91. Classified according to sex, there were, in 1872, 362,067 males and 351,867 females; proportion of males in the total population, 50·71 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 152,125, and females, 120,987; total, 273,112. The undue proportion of male as compared with female children is due to the fact that here, as elsewhere throughout India, natives consider that girls attain womanhood at an earlier age than boys reach manhood; and many girls were thus entered as women. The ethnical division of the people in 1872 was as follows:—Non-Asiatics (British), 15; mixed races (Eurasians), 191; Asiatics (natives of India and Burma), 713,728. Among semi-Hinduized aborigines, the most numerous are the Chandáls, of whom there were in 1872, 12,947, employed for the most part in cultivation. The most important castes are—the Káyasths (20,814), many of them pleaders, accountants, writers, or treasurers to landed proprietors; Kaibarttás, an agricultural caste, 20,263; and Jugís, a caste of weavers, of whom there were 32,991. The Bráhmans numbered 7622. On the basis of religion, 180,253, or 25·2 per cent. of the population, were Hindus; and 533,053, or 74·7 per cent., Muhammadans. The remaining 0·1 per cent. was composed of 552 Christians, 61 Buddhists, and 15 'others.' Noákhálí contains a larger percentage

of Muhammadans than any other District in Bengal, except Bográ and Rájsháhí. They all belong to the Sunni sect, and most of them are Faráizís, or observers of the strict commandments of the Kurán. Of the Christians in 1872, 346 were natives, 191 Eurasians, and 15 Europeans. The foregoing figures are taken from the Census Report of 1872, and do not include the *thánás* of Mirkásarái and Chhágalnáiyá, which have been recently transferred to Noákhálí from Chittagong and Tipperah respectively. The aggregate population of these *thánás* in 1872 was 235,682, dwelling in 352 villages and in 37,646 houses. These and other minor transfers have (Parliamentary Abstract, 1878) increased the population to 949,616, and the area to 1852 square miles. No towns worthy of the name are to be found. SUDHARAM or Noákhálí, the principal place, contains only 4752 inhabitants, and is little more than a large village. It is, however, a municipality; municipal revenue in 1876-77, £298; incidence of taxation, 11¾d. per head. The only places of historical interest in the District are the mosques on Sandwíp Island and the ruins of the Company's factories, already incidentally referred to. Bhuluá was one of the military outposts of the Mughal Empire, and was in 1610 the scene of a battle between the Mughals and the combined forces of the Portuguese and Arakanese.

Agriculture.—Rice forms in Noákhálí, as elsewhere in Bengal, the staple of cultivation. It consists of two great crops, the *áus* or early rice, and the *áman* or winter crop, each of which is divided into two classes, and again subdivided into many varieties. The first class of *áus* rice is sown in March and April, and reaped in July and August; the second description is sown in June and July, and reaped in October and November. The first kind of *áman* rice is sown in March and April, transplanted in June and July, and reaped in November and December; the second kind, sown in July and August, is also transplanted, and is reaped in November and December. Of these four crops, 53 well-defined varieties are named. Amongst the other crops grown in the District may be mentioned pulses, mustard and other oil-seeds, cocoa-nuts, betel-nut and betel-leaf, turmeric, sugar-cane, and a little jute. According to an official estimate made in 1873-74, out of the then total area of the District (996,480 acres), 747,360 acres were devoted to the cultivation of food grains. Roughly speaking, a fair out-turn from an acre of land paying a rent of 9s. is about 17½ cwts. of unhusked paddy, or about half that quantity of husked rice. The value varies according to the quality of crop grown; the best description of *áman* paddy being worth, on an average, from 2s. to 2s. 8d. per cwt., and *áus* paddy from 1s. 4d. to 2s. per cwt. A second crop is obtained from nearly all good land, and the average out-turn of an acre of such land would be about 35 cwts. of paddy, valued at £3, 10s. Wages have doubled within the past twenty years; agricultural day-labourers

now receive 6d. a day, smiths and carpenters 1s., and bricklayers from 4½d. to 7½d. Prices of food grains have also risen, but there is no evidence to show whether this rise has kept even pace with the increase in the rate of wages. The price of the best cleaned rice during each of the years 1870-73 was 6s. 2d. per cwt., and of common cleaned rice 4s. 1d. There is a good deal of waste land in the District, but very little of it is fit for cultivation. It is not customary to allow lands to lie fallow, and no system of rotation of crops is followed. The estates of Noákhálí may be divided into three classes—(1) Government *khás mahals* (133 in number), in which the Government has retained the full proprietary right; (2) lands of which Government has only a right to a fixed revenue (*zamíndáris* and *khárijá* or independent *táluks*), numbering 1522; and (3) estates with respect to which the Government has neither a proprietary right nor a claim to receive revenue, of which there are 56. In addition to these, there are numerous intermediate tenures.

Natural Calamities.—Insects occasionally do great damage to the crops, but not on such a scale as to affect the general harvest of the District. The calamity to which Noákhálí is most subject is flood, generally caused by southerly gales or cyclones occurring at the time when the Meghná is swollen by heavy rains, and when the tides are highest—namely, at new or full moon about the period of either equinox. These floods are very destructive, the damage being caused not so much by the mere inundation as by the sea-water. The flood raised by a storm-wave subsides almost directly, but pools of salt water are left in every field. When evaporation sets in, the water of these pools becomes salter than the Meghná itself, and kills the growing rice. The crops were destroyed generally in 1822 and 1825 by heavy floods; and in 1848, 1869, and 1876, the crops on the islands and along the river banks were destroyed from the same cause. The cyclone and storm-wave of the 31st October 1876 was terribly disastrous in its effects, sweeping over the delta of the Meghná, and spreading death and disease throughout the three Districts of Noákhálí, Bákarganj, and Chittagong. The loss of life in Noákhálí was appalling. The precise mortality in several small areas was at once ascertained; and from the information thus obtained, it was estimated that out of a total population of 384,767 inhabiting the four mainland *thánás* of Sudhárám, Bámni, Amírgáon, and Mirkásarái, principally affected by the cyclone, no fewer than 30,000 had been drowned. In the island of Hátiá, the number of deaths was estimated at 30,000, out of a population of 54,147; and in Sandwíp, at 40,000, out of 87,016. In the two islands and four *thánás*, therefore, the estimates give a total of 100,000 deaths out of a population of 525,930, or a mortality of 19 per cent. The details of the calamity (a full account of which will be found in the

Statistical Account of Bengal, vol. vi. pp. 525-532) are very distressing; in one *char* alone, out of 177 people, 137 died. The flood occurred at midnight, and the whole damage was done in a few minutes. A great wave, several feet high, suddenly burst over the country; and was immediately followed by another still higher, and by a third; escape in most cases was simply impossible. No protective measure against these calamities seems practicable; the trees which invariably surround the homesteads saved most of those who survived. The highest prices reached for food grains in Noákhálí during the famine of 1866 were—for best husked rice, 19s. 9d. a cwt.; common husked rice, 12s. 10d.; best paddy, 14s. 7d.; and common paddy, 9s. 9d. a cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Despite its extensive river coast, extending from Ráipur to the mouth of the Bará Phení, a distance of 200 miles, and its consequent favourable situation for the growth of commerce, the trade of Noákhálí is not extensive, and little enterprise is shown in developing its capabilities. Business is carried on by means of permanent markets. The principal exports are rice, betel-nuts, and cocoa-nuts; the chief imports—European cotton goods, salt, sugar, iron, lime, bamboos, tobacco, and salted fish. No manufactures worthy of the name are at present carried on in Noákhálí. The total extent of water-ways in the District is 340 miles, of which 299 miles are rivers and *khúls*, and 41 canals; the land communications extend to 226 miles.

Administration.—Noákhálí was first formed into a separate District in 1822. In 1824-25, the earliest year for which records are available, the gross revenue of the District amounted to £51,828, and the gross expenditure to £6979. By 1850-51, the revenue had risen to £115,408, and the expenditure to £18,321; so that in twenty-six years both the revenue and expenditure had more than doubled. In 1870-71, the gross revenue amounted to £96,955, and the net expenditure to £23,096. The land revenue of the District remained almost stationary during the thirty years preceding 1870. In 1842-43, it amounted to £53,177; in 1850-51, to £64,857; and in 1870-71, to £55,024. In 1870-71, the revenue derived from the land tax was £48,135. For police purposes, the District is divided into 10 *thánás*. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 287 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6000. There was also a municipal police of 15 men, costing £132, and a rural police or village watch of 1477 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £5206. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 1777 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 0·86 of a square mile of the area or to every 407 of the population. The estimated total cost was £11,338, equal to an average of £7, 5s. 8d. per square mile of area, or 3¾d. per head of the population. There is one jail in the District, at Sudhárám. In 1856-57, and again in

1860-61, there was only 1 Government school in the District, the number of pupils in the former year being 69, and in the latter, 71. In 1870-71, the number of Government and aided schools was 26, attended by 596 pupils. Since 1870-71, there has been a great increase in the number of schools aided and inspected by Government; and in 1873, the number of such schools was 135, with 3824 pupils. For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 2 Subdivisions—SUDHARAM and PHENI, the latter with its headquarters at Farádnagar. The number of fiscal divisions or *parganás* in 1868 was 30.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Noákhálí is damp, and the seasons are irregular. The sea-breeze, however, tempers the heat in the worst season. The average annual rainfall for the sixteen years ending 1873 is 101·7 inches, of which three-fourths fall between June and September. The average mean daily temperature during the year is returned at 79·58° F., ranging from 96° to 52°. The endemic diseases of Noákhálí are fevers, remittent and intermittent, caused chiefly by malaria; diarrhœa, dysentery, rheumatism, and many skin affections. Cholera and small-pox occasionally occur in an epidemic form. There is a dispensary at Sudhárám.

Noákhálí.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Noákhálí District, Bengal, lying between 22° 34′ and 22° 53′ N. lat., and between 90° 53′ and 91° 18′ E. long. It was formed in 1876, and has its headquarters at Sudhárám. It contained (1872) 1698 villages, 129,850 houses, and a population of 580,591 persons. This Subdivision comprises the 7 police circles of Sudhárám, Bámni, Sandwíp, Hátiá, Lakshmipur, Begamganj, and Rámganj.

Noákhálí.—Town, Noákhálí District, Bengal.—*See* SUDHARAM.

Noárband.—Outpost in Cáchár District, Assam; about 18 miles south of Silchár. In 1875, it was garrisoned by a detachment of the 3rd Bengal Native Infantry, with headquarters at Silchár.

Nobra.—Tract of country in Ladákh, Kashmír State, Punjab. Wild and elevated region on the south of the Karakoram ranges, and almost enclosed by the Shy-Yok or river of Nobra, a tributary of the Indus. Elevation, 11,000 feet and upward. Chief village, Deskit, lat. 34° 35′ N., and long. 77° 37′ E.

Noh.—*Tahsíl* and town in Gurgáon District, Punjab.—*See* NUH.

Nohar.—Fort in Bahawalpur State, Punjab.—*See* ISLAMGARH.

Nonai (or *Nanai*).—The name of two rivers in Assam. (1) Rises in the Bhután Hills, and, flowing due south through the extreme west of Darrang District, empties itself into the Brahmaputra almost opposite Gauháti. In recent years, it has diverged widely from its old course, and overflowed a fertile tract of land. Beyond the frontier, a bed of travertin has been found on its banks, containing 90 per cent. of pure lime. In British territory, it is navigable by boats of 4 tons burden

throughout the year.—(2) Rises in the Míkír Hills, and, after receiving the Sálná and Chápánálá, falls into the KALANG, an important offshoot of the Brahmaputra, at the village of Háriá-mukh. It is navigable for nine months of the year, and its course lies entirely within Nowgong District.

Nong-klao.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 6924; revenue, £206. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named U Kin Sinh. The natural products include potatoes, cinnamon, and caoutchouc. Cotton is woven, and iron is made into implements of native use. Lime is quarried to a small extent. Nong-klao was the first of the Khási States with which the British came into contact. In 1826, the *siem* entered into an agreement with certain Europeans to allow a road to be made across the hills into Assam Proper. But, in 1829, disputes arose, and two British officers then residing at Nong-klao were massacred, together with their Sepoy guard. After this disturbance was quelled, Nong-klao was chosen as the first headquarters of the Political Agent in the Khási Hills, shortly afterwards removed to Cherrá Púnjí, and now at Shillong. In the neighbourhood of Nong-klao is a small cinchona plantation, started in 1867 by the superintendent of the Calcutta Botanical Gardens. The quinine-giving qualities of the bark have been unfavourably reported upon, and the plantation has recently been made over to the charge of the *siem*.

Nong-krim.—Village in the State of Khyrim, in the Khási Hills, Assam; near which iron-ore is found in abundance, and of the best quality. The iron-ore is smelted on the spot, and the greater part is sent down into the plains in lumps; a little is manufactured into implements of native use.

Nong-soh-phoh (or *Nobosohphoh*).—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 961; revenue, £13. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named U Ksan. Potatoes are grown and mats manufactured.

Nong-spung.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 871; revenue, £10. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named U Synteo Sinh. He derives his income from his commission as *mauzádár* in Kámrúp District. The natural products include potatoes, honey, and bees-wax. Iron-ore is smelted and manufactured into implements of native use.

Nong-stain.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 7763; revenue, £440. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named U Dan Sinh. The natural products include *tezpát* or bay-leaves, caoutchouc, lac, and bees-wax. The manufactures are pottery, cotton cloth, and iron implements. Limestone and coal are found. Nong-stain is connected with Shillong by a fairly good road, 52 miles in length.

Nong-tyr-men (or *Dwára Nong-tyr-men*).—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 378; revenue, £171, almost entirely derived from dues on lime quarries. The presiding chief, whose title is *sardár*, is named U Jantrái. The natural products include oranges, betel-nuts, and *pán* leaves. A small net is manufactured, and limestone is largely quarried.

North Lakhimpur.—Subdivision and village in Lakhimpur District, Assam.—*See* LAKHIMPUR.

North-Western Provinces.—Lieutenant-Governorship of British India, lying between 23° 51′ 30″ and 31° 5′ N. lat., and between 77° 3′ and 84° 43′ 30″ E. long. Area, 81,403 square miles; population in 1872, 30,781,204 persons: or, inclusive of Native States, 86,528 square miles and 31,438,217 persons. The Provinces are bounded on the north by the Chinese Empire; on the north-east by Nepál and Oudh; on the east by Bengal; on the south by Chutiá Nágpur, Rewah, the Bundelkhand States, and the Central Provinces; and on the west by Gwalior, Rájputána, and the Punjab. The administrative headquarters and seat of the Lieutenant-Governor are at ALLAHABAD. The table on the opposite page gives the chief statistics of the North-Western Provinces for the year 1876-77:—

Physical Aspects.—The North-Western Provinces occupy, roughly speaking, the upper basin of the Ganges and the Jumna (Jamuná), corresponding to Hundustán Proper of the Muhammadan chroniclers. A large semicircular tract, comprising the valleys of the Gogra and the Gumti, has long been artificially separated from the remainder of the great plain, as the kingdom of OUDH; and though now under the administrative charge of the Lieutenant-Governor at Allahábád, it remains, in respect of its lands and courts, a distinct Chief Commissionership. With this exception, the North-Western Provinces include the whole upper portion of the wide Gangetic basin, from the Himálayas and the Punjab plain to the Vindhyán plateau and the low-lying rice-fields of Bengal. Taken as a whole, the Lieutenant-Governorship consists of the richest wheat-bearing country in India, irrigated both naturally by the rivers which take their rise in the northern mountains, and artificially by the magnificent system of canals and distributaries, which owe their origin to British enterprise. It contains many of the most famous cities of Indian history, and it is studded at the present day with thriving villages, interspersed at greater distances with commercial towns. Except during the hot-weather months, when the crops are off the fields, the general aspect is that of a verdant and well-tilled but very monotonous plain, only merging into hilly or mountainous country at the extreme edges of the basin on the south and north. The course of the great rivers marks the prevailing slope of

[*Sentence continued on* p. 160.

AREA and POPULATION of TERRITORY under the Administration of the LIEUT.-GOVERNOR of the NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES (excluding Oudh).

Divisions.	Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Population. (Census of 1872.)
UNDER BRITISH ADMINISTRATION.			
Meerut (Mirath),	Dehra Dún,	1,021	116,945
	Sahâranpur,	2,217	884,017
	Muzaffarnagar,	1,659	690,107
	Meerut (Mirath),	2,360	1,276,104
	Bulandshahr,	1,910	936,667
	Alígarh,	1,964	1,073,333
Rohilkhand,	Bijnaur (Bijnor),	1,903	737,153
	Moradábád,	2,272	1,122,437
	Budáun,	2,005	934,348
	Bareli (Bareilly),	2,982	1,507,139
	Sháhjahánpur,	1,723	949,579
	Tarái,	920	185,658
Agra,	Muttra (Mathura),	1,612	887,689
	Agra,	1,908	1,096,367
	Farrukhábád,	1,745	918,850
	Máinpuri,	1,696	765,845
	Etáwah,	1,691	668,641
	Etah,	1,512	703,527
Jhánsi,	Jaláun,	1,553	404,447
	Jhánsi,	1,567	317,826
	Lálitpur,	1,947	212,661
Allahábád,	Cawnpore,	2,337	1,156,055
	Fatehpur,	1,586	663,877
	Bánda,	2,909	697,684
	Allahábád,	2,747	1,396,241
	Hamírpur,	2,287	529,137
	Jaunpur,	1,556	1,025,961
Benares,	Azamgarh,	2,565	1,531,482
	Mírzápur,	5,217	1,015,826
	Benares,	996	794,039
	Gházípur,	2,168	1,345,570
	Gorakhpur,	4,579	2,019,361
	Basti,	2,789	1,473,029
Kumáun,	Kumáun,	6,000	433,314
	Garhwál,	5,500	310,288
Total under British Administration,		81,403	30,781,204
NATIVE STATES.[1]			
Garhwál or Tehri,		4,180	150,000
Rámpur,		945	507,013
Total Native States,		5,125	657,013
GRAND TOTAL,		86,528	31,438,217

[1] The small *ilákas* of Rámpura, Gursarái, and Gopálpura are under British Administration. The family domains of the Mahárájá of Benares are included in the districts of Mírzápur and Benares, and contains 986 square miles and 392,415 inhabitants.

Sentence continued from p. 158.]
the land, which falls on every side from the Himálayas, the Rájputána uplands, and the Vindhyán plateau towards the seaward opening of the Ganges into the Bay of Bengal. The chief natural features of the Provinces are thus determined by their main streams, whose alluvial deposits have first formed their central portion, while the currents have afterwards cut themselves deep channels through the detritus brought down by their own agency from the ring of hills or uplands on every quarter.

The extreme north-western or Himálayan tract comprises the Native State of TEHRI, or INDEPENDENT GARHWAL, together with the British Districts of DEHRA DUN, GARHWAL, and KUMAUN. These mountainous regions include some of the wildest and most magnificent country in the whole range of the Himálayas, and among their snow-clad peaks the sacred streams of the Ganges and the Jumna take their rise. Many famous temples and places of pilgrimage line the upper banks of the Ganges, and thousands of devout Hindus annually repair to the holy source from all parts of India. Several of the higher summits attain a height exceeding 20,000 feet; while Nanda Devi, on the borders of British Garhwál and Kumáun, rises to 25,661 feet above sea level. Beautiful and romantic scenery abounds, especially near the lake and sanitarium of Náini Tál, and in the valley of Dehra Dún; but the economic value of the mountains is almost entirely confined to the growth of tea in Kumáun, and the export of forest produce to the plains. A sparse Hindu population lies scattered among the valleys; and in the extreme northern passes into Chinese Tartary, the people belong to the Thibetan race.

South of the Himálayas, the SIWALIK range, a mass of detritus from the greater chain, slopes downward to the fruitful plain of the DOAB. It is separated from the Himálayas by the valleys or *dúns*. Under the name of Doáb ('Two Waters') is included the whole wedge of land enclosed between the confluent streams of the Ganges and the Jumna, comprising the Districts of SAHARANPUR, MUZAFFARNAGAR, MEERUT (Mírath), BULANDSHAHR, ALIGARH, part of MUTTRA (Mathura), and AGRA, MAINPURI, ETAH, FARRUKHABAD, ETAWAH, CAWNPORE, FATEHPUR, and part of ALLAHABAD. The irregular horn-shaped tongue of country thus enclosed runs in a sweeping south-eastward curve, following the general direction of the Ganges watershed, from the Siwáliks to Allahábád. On either side the great rivers flow through low-lying valleys, fertilized by their overflow or percolation; while a high bank leads up to the central upland, which consists of the older deposits. This central plateau, though naturally dry and unproductive, except when irrigated by wells, has been transformed into an almost unbroken sheet of cultivation by three great systems of irrigation works, the

GANGES, the LOWER GANGES, and the EASTERN JUMNA CANALS. The East Indian, the Sind, Punjab and Delhi, and the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railways also pass through the Doáb in several directions, and afford an outlet for its surplus agricultural produce. Altogether, this favoured inter-fluvial region may be fitly regarded as the granary of Upper India.

A considerable strip of country on the west bank of the Jumna, above its junction with the Chambal, belongs historically and ethnographically to the North-Western Provinces, and contains the ancient Mughal capital of Delhi, together with many other important towns. Since the reorganization after the Mutiny of 1857-58, however, the greater part of this trans-Jumna tract has been made over to the Punjab; and the only portion north of the Chambal now retained under the Government at Allahábád consists of two outlying portions of Muttra and Agra Districts (including the two cities from which they take their names), together with a small section of Etáwah. They are chiefly composed of a flat and naturally arid plain, now enriched by the distributaries of the AGRA CANAL.

North of the Ganges, and closed in between that river, the Garhwál and Kumáun Himálayas, and the Chief Commissionership of Oudh, lies the triangular plain of ROHILKHAND. This Division presents the general level features of the Gangetic valley, only slightly varied by the submontane tract on the north-east. Close below the feet of the Kumáun Hills stretches the damp and pestilential region of the TARAI, which extends, physically speaking, into the neighbouring Districts.

South of the Jumna, the poor and irregular region known as BUNDELKHAND rises upward from the river bank to the edge of the Vindhyán plateau. This part of the Province is intersected by Native States; and isolated portions of the surrounding principalities lie in many places in the midst of British territory. The soil is generally rocky and unfertile; the population is impoverished, scanty, and ignorant; and, as a whole, Bundelkhand may rank as the poorest and most backward region of the North-Western Provinces. It comprises the Districts of JALAUN, JHANSI, LALITPUR, HAMIRPUR, and BANDA. The southernmost portion is much cut up by spurs of sandstone and granite hills, running down from the Vindhyán system; but the northern half, near the bank of the great river, possesses a somewhat richer soil, and approximates more nearly in character to the opposite plain of the Doáb.

Below the junction of the Jumna and the Ganges at Allahábád, the country begins to put on somewhat the appearance of the Bengal plains; and it also once more expands northward, east of the intervening block of Oudh, to the foot of the Nepál Himálayas. It may be

conveniently considered under three portions, respectively separated by the Ganges and the Gogra.

The tract south of the Ganges comprises part of ALLAHABAD, BENARES and GHAZIPUR Districts, together with the extensive District of MIRZAPUR. Its general features somewhat resemble those of Bundelkhand; but the lowlands along the river bank are more fertile, while the hill country is more mountainous and of greater extent.

The triangle between the Ganges, the Gogra, and the boundary of Oudh, includes part of ALLAHABAD, JAUNPUR, half BENARES, part of GHAZIPUR, and the whole of AZAMGARH. This fertile corner of the Gangetic plain, lying wholly along the course of great rivers, possesses the densest population of the North-Western Provinces, and consists of an almost unbroken sheet of cultivation, spreading from the alluvial lowlands over the wide upland which rises from the river banks. Numerous towns and villages cover its surface; and its capital city, BENARES, forms at once the ecclesiastical metropolis of Hinduism and the most populous town in the North-Western Provinces.

The trans-Gogra region, comprising the Districts of BASTI and GORAKHPUR, presents a somewhat wilder, submontane appearance, especially in its northern portion. Even here, however, cultivation widely prevails, and the general aspect is that of a well-tilled and very verdant plain.

The chief rivers of the North-Western Provinces are the GANGES, the JUMNA, and the GOGRA. Among minor streams, the East and West KALI NADIS and the HINDAN flow through the Doáb. The CHAMBAL intersects the trans-Jumna tract in Etáwah. The BETWA and the KEN are the principal streams of Bundelkhand. The RAMGANGA, rising in Garhwál, pursues a very tortuous course through the plain of Rohilkhand. The GUMTI enters the Provinces from Oudh, and flows past Jaunpur to join the Ganges. And the RAPTI divides the trans-Gogra region into two nearly equal parts. All the drainage of the North-Western Provinces falls directly or indirectly into the Ganges.

History.—The earliest settlement of the Aryan race in India lay probably in that portion of the Punjab which surrounds the upper waters of the Sarsuti or Saraswati river, still regarded as one of the most sacred spots of Hindu pilgrimage. From this centre, the fair-skinned colonists spread over the neighbouring lands, subduing or exterminating the darker aborigines as they advanced. In the Doáb, they founded the famous city of Hastinápur, the capital of the Lunar race, who also ruled at Muttra, Kási (or Benares), Magadha, and Behar. The Solar race, on the other hand, gave princes to Ajodhya in Southern Oudh, and founded colonies in many parts of the North-Western Provinces. The Vedas show us the Aryan settlements as almost confined to the upper basin of the Ganges and the Jumna, with a few outlying

branches in Tirhut, Western Bengal, the Vindhyán Hills, and the Narbadá valley; while the south of the Peninsula still remained almost entirely in the hands of the Dravidians. Throughout the whole historical period, the upper Gangetic valley retained its position as the chief seat of the Aryan supremacy in India, and afterwards the centre of the Mughal Empire at Delhi or Agra. Its history, being thus almost co-extensive with that of the central power for several centuries, can only be sketched in very brief outlines.

The earliest traditions of the North-Western Provinces cluster round the city of Hastinápur, on the Ganges, in Meerut District, the ancient metropolis of the Pándavas. Only a few shapeless mounds now mark the site where lived the children of the moon, the descendants of Bhárata, whose great war is chronicled in the Hindu epic of the *Mahábhárata.* The poem deals chiefly with the conflict between the five Pándavas, sons of Pándu and founders of Indraprastha (*see* DELHI CITY), and the Kauravas, who held the older capital of Hastinápur. These events, if not absolutely mythical, may be assigned to the 15th century before Christ. But the earliest empire in this portion of Upper India of which any certain monuments remain was that of the Buddhist dynasty of Magadha. The founder of the Buddhist creed, Sákya Muni, was born at Kapila in 598 B.C., and died at Kassia in Gorakhpur District in 543. After his death, the creed which he had preached spread rapidly over Hindustán, and became for many centuries the dominant religion of the Aryan race. When Alexander the Great invaded the Punjab in 327 B.C., he heard of the great empire of Magadha, whose capital lay at Palibothra, generally identified with the modern city of Patná in Bengal. The Nágá or serpent dynasty ruled over Magadha, and the reigning prince at the date of Alexander's invasion bore the name of Nanda. His minister Chandra Gupta, the Sandracottus of the Greeks, assassinated the Nágá prince and seized upon the throne for himself. Seleucus, the successor of Alexander in his easternmost dominions, marched with a large army into the Ganges basin, and endeavoured to annex the whole of the modern Provinces to his own kingdom. Chandra Gupta, however, though defeated in the pages of Hellenic chroniclers, at least succeeded in actual fact so far as to preserve his territory intact, and to receive the philosopher Megasthenes as ambassador from Seleucus at his court in Palibothra. Under his grandson Asoka (260 B.C.) the empire of Magadha reached its highest development. The whole of Hindustán and the Punjab, together with portions of the Deccan and the north-western mountain country, were included within its boundaries; and the pillars or rock-edicts containing the inscriptions of Asoka may be found at Peshávar, at Allahábád, at Delhi, in Dehra Dún, and on the Bay of Bengal. Asoka was the first of his line to embrace the

Buddhist faith, which he established as the State religion throughout his wide dominions.

After the decline of the Gupta dynasty, during the 2nd century B.C., we get but scanty notices of the upper Ganges valley for several hundred years. It would appear, however, that a Bráhmanical reaction, headed apparently by the Rájputs, opposed the peaceful spread of the Buddhist creed, and that a long struggle took place between the rival religions. Early in the 7th century A.D., Hiouen Thsang, a Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, visited all the most sacred sites in India, and found the Hindu pantheon re-established in many places, though the great kingdoms of Magadha and KANAUJ still remained faithful to the teachings of Sákhya Muni. Buddhism appears to have been finally stamped out by fire and sword throughout the whole of Hindustán about the 8th century, and the existing monuments bear marks of violent treatment from the hands of the reactionary party. During this intermediate period, numerous petty principalities divided between them the valleys of the Jumna and the Ganges; but the most important were probably those of Magadha, Kanauj, Benares, Delhi, and Mithila.

Continuous history begins for the North-Western Provinces with the Muhammadan invasion. Mahmúd of Ghazní, in 1017 A.D., was the first Musalmán leader who led his army beyond the limits of the Punjab into the rich plains of Hindustán. He entered the sacred city of Kanauj, in Farrukhábád District, whose ruins still cover a very large area; and then sacked the holy shrines of MUTTRA, the birth-place of Krishna, still one of the most deeply-venerated seats of the Hindu religion. But Mahmúd did not succeed in permanently conquering any part of the Gangetic basin, the Provinces of Múltán and Lahore alone being incorporated with the dominions of Ghazní. Muhammad Ghori, who overthrew the Ghaznevide dynasty, really founded the Musalmán power in Hindustán. At the period of his invasion, Prithwi Rájá, the Tomar Rájá of Delhi, was the leading ruler of Upper India. He had been long engaged in a struggle for supremacy with the Ráthor Rájá of Kanauj, and the intestine strife of the Hindu princes gave an opportunity for aggression to the Musalmán rulers of the Punjab. Muhammad Ghori attacked the Delhi Rájá, and though once defeated with great loss, finally succeeded in establishing his power over the northern part of the Ganges valley. The King of Delhi was taken prisoner and massacred in cold blood; and Muhammad returned in triumph to Ghazní, leaving his viceroy, Kutab-ud-dín, to complete the conquest of the Hindu kingdoms. In 1193 A.D., the viceroy conquered KOIL and MEERUT, and fixed the seat of the Muhammadan empire at Delhi, where it remained, with few intermissions, till the British conquest. In the next year, Muhammad himself returned to India, and defeated Jái Chand, Rájá of Kanauj, in the ravines of Etáwah

District. He then took the holy city of Benares, the metropolis of Hinduism, and destroyed the suspiciously symmetrical number of 1000 temples. Thereupon the Rathors emigrated in a body to the desert plains of Rájputána, where they founded the kingdom of Márwár, and long kept alive the military spirit of the Hindu race.

Muhammad Ghori died by violence in 1206, having completely subdued the whole of Northern India, from the Himálayas to the Narbadá (Nerbudda), and from the Indus to the Bay of Bengal. His viceroy, Kutab-ud-dín, practically succeeded to his Indian dominions, and became the founder of the Slave dynasty. The account of that line, and of the succeeding Ghilzái and Tughlak dynasties, belongs rather to the general history of India than to the restricted annals of the North-Western Provinces. The Muhammadan power thenceforth remained supreme in the Ganges valley, which it ruled for the most part from the capital at Delhi. Under the Tughlak princes (1321-1411), however, the empire became disintegrated; and besides the more distant principalities founded by Musalmán chiefs in Málwá and Guzerat, a separate kingdom arose at JAUNPUR, within the limits of the North-Western Provinces themselves. In 1394, Málik Sarwár Khwája, governor of Jaunpur for Muhammad Tughlak, made himself independent, and assumed the title of Sultán-us-shark. The dynasty thus established maintained itself in power for 84 years, and constantly contested with the Delhi emperors the sovereignty of Kanauj and the other border Districts. Four years after this secession, in 1398, the Mughal conqueror Timur invaded India. Crossing the Indus at Attock, he marched through the Punjab to Delhi, under the walls of which he defeated the Sultán Muhammad Tughlak, who escaped to Guzerat. Timur entered in state the imperial capital, which his fierce soldiery sacked, apparently against his will. From Delhi he made his way through the Doáb, swept across Meerut District into Rohilkhand, recrossed the Ganges at Hardwár, and finally left the Provinces by Saháranpur District. Wherever he passed, massacres and plunder marked his path. Hindustán recovered very slowly from this terrible blow. Muhammad Tughlak returned for awhile to Delhi, where he exercised a precarious authority for 12 years, until Khizr Khán, governor of the Punjab, seized upon the throne in 1414. The new dynasty, known as that of the Sayyids, ruled nominally as the viceroys of the Mughals, for 36 years, during which their sway became gradually restricted to the country immediately visible from the walls of Delhi. Meanwhile the Jaunpur kingdom had risen to great power, and under Sultán Ibráhim (1401-40) became the leading state in the Ganges valley. Ibráhim adorned his capital with numerous magnificent architectural works, and several times strove to take KALPI, the key of the Jumna, from the Delhi Empire. His son Mahmúd succeeded in 1442 in his designs upon

Kálpi; after which he marched eastward, reduced CHANAR, and invaded Orissa. In 1450, Bahlol Lodi, of an Afghán family, deposed the last Sayyid Emperor, Alá-ud-dín, and made himself supreme at Delhi. Two years later, Mahmúd of Jaunpur laid siege to Delhi itself; but Bahlol Lodi returned from the Punjab, raised the siege, and drove Mahmúd back to his own capital. After 28 years of prolonged struggle between the two empires, Bahlol finally defeated the last of the Jaunpur Sultáns, Husáin, in 1478; and the whole of the North-Western Provinces were once more united to the Delhi dominions under the Lodi dynasty. In 1517, Ibráhim Lodi ascended the throne, and reigned for 9 years, with constant revolts on every side. At length, in 1526, Bábar marched against him from Ferghána, captured Delhi, and founded the famous line of the 'Great Mughals.' Bábar died at AGRA in 1530, and his son Humáyun continued to reside in the same city. Agra had already formed a favourite residence of the Lodi princes; and under the early Mughal Emperors it ranked as the capital of India. The city then stood on the left bank of the Jumna, not, as now, on its right shore. Humáyun's Empire was almost restricted to the present Provinces by the revolt of his brother, who took possession of Kábul and the Punjab; while in 1539 the Emperor was driven back from the east to his capital, and in the next year was expelled from Agra itself by Sher Sháh, leader of the Bengal Afgháns. Humáyun, after a serious defeat at Kanauj, fled first to Delhi, then to Lahore, and finally to Sind; while Sher Sháh made himself Emperor, and proceeded to carry out a magnificent scheme for the consolidation of all India. For this purpose, he constructed a great military road from Bengal to the Indus, and improved the communications throughout his whole dominions. After a reign of 5 years, however, he was killed by the explosion of a magazine at the siege of KALINJAR, a hill fort in Bundelkhand. His two sons successively followed him on the throne, but failed to maintain their dynasty. In 1555, Humáyun returned from Kábul to Hindustán, which he found in a state of complete anarchy, and re-established himself as Emperor, placing his capital at Delhi. The Mughal dynasty, thus restored, continued to hold the Empire of India till the rise of the Marhattá power.

During the flourishing period of the Mughals, the North-Western Provinces had no proper history of their own. The great Akbar, the reorganizer of the Mughal system, lived for the most part at Agra, where he built the magnificent fort in 1566, afterwards beautified by the palace of Jahángir and the great mosque of Sháh Jahán. In 1570, Akbar founded the city of FATEHPUR SIKRI, where he intended to place the seat of government; but after erecting several splendid architectural works, he again changed his plans, and finally died at Agra. It was not till the reign of Aurangzeb that Delhi became the permanent

capital. Amongst other incidents of this prosperous age may be mentioned the first construction of the Eastern Jumna Canal by Alí Mardan Khán, the engineer of Sháh Jahán; and the erection of many of the principal buildings which still remain in all the great towns of the Provinces.

With the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, began the rapid downfall of the Mughal power. The Marhattá reaction to the south, and the rise of the Síkh religion to the north-west, began to threaten the integrity of the Delhi Empire, which received a severe shock in 1737 when Báji Ráo marched to the gates of the capital; and a still more terrible reverse in the succeeding year, when Nádir Sháh crossed the Indus, and, after defeating the Emperor, plundered Delhi of a vast treasure, variously stated from 9 to 32 millions sterling. Within the North-Western Provinces themselves, the process of disintegration had already begun. As early as 1671, during the lifetime of Aurangzeb, Chhatar Sál, a young Bundela chief, had headed an insurrection in his native hills, which continued intermittently throughout the next half-century. (*See* BANDA DISTRICT.) After a desperate struggle, Chhatar Sál finally accepted, in 1732, the aid of the Peshwá Báji Ráo, who was then slowly working his way up through Khandesh and Málwá to Hindustán. About two years later, Chhatar Sál died, and bequeathed one-third of his dominions to the Peshwá, while the remainder was divided amongst his own descendants. In or about 1720, the Rohillás, a branch of the Yusufzái Afgháns, made themselves similarly independent in the tract between the Ganges and the Himálayas now called Rohilkhand; and though they had often to struggle against the Delhi court, they maintained their freedom till they were conquered in 1774 by the Oudh *Wazír*, with the aid of British troops lent by Warren Hastings. About the same time, Saádat Alí Khán laid the foundations of the kingdom of Oudh, though he and his successor remained nominally subject to the Emperor. Shortly afterwards, Báji Ráo appeared upon the Jumna, and in 1736 sent his general to plunder the Doáb, whence he was driven back by Saádat Alí. The final supremacy of the Marhattás after the retirement of Nádir Sháh, and their establishment at Delhi in 1758, gave a show of unity to the Empire for awhile; but their defeat at Pánipat by Ahmad Sháh Duráni in 1761 completed the dismemberment of the Mughal organization. During the remainder of the century, the state of the Provinces was one of armed anarchy on every side, until the British stepped in for the restoration of order. The Nawáb of Oudh and the Rohillás achieved complete independence beyond the Ganges; Bundelkhand remained divided between the Marhattás and the native chiefs; Síndhia slowly superseded the power of the Peshwá, and became gradually supreme in Delhi; and the Doáb was alternately overrun by the Bhartpur Játs, the

Marhattás, the Rohillás, and every other of the contending parties, though remaining on the whole under the rule of the authorities at Delhi.

The British first came into connection with the North-Western Provinces as they advanced along the valley of the Ganges from their foothold in Bengal. In 1763, the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, with the phantom Emperor Sháh Alam, invaded Bengal. They received a crushing defeat at Baxar, and the Emperor, with Balwant Sinh, Rájá of Benares, joined the British camp. By the subsequent agreement, Balwant Sinh's estates were transferred from Oudh to the British; but the Court of Directors disapproved of the transfer, and a year later the territory was restored to Oudh, the Nawáb guaranteeing to keep the Rájá in possession. In 1775, however, the new Nawáb, Asaf-ud-daulá, ceded Benares, Jaunpur, and Gházípur to the British, retaining Allahábád and Korah, which had been taken from the Emperor in the previous year, when the British sold them to Oudh. The Nawáb Wazír had agreed in 1772 to pay a fixed sum for each brigade of English troops maintained for his aid; and in 1797, this subsidy amounted to £760,000 a year. Being always in arrear, the Nawáb entered into negotiations for a cession of territory in lieu of subsidy; and in 1801, the treaty of Lucknow was signed, by which the whole of the Oudh dominions in the Doáb, together with Rohilkhand, were made over to the British. As early as 1778 a British cantonment had been stationed at CAWNPORE, then in the midst of the Nawáb's territory; and around it a great commercial city has slowly grown up. In 1801, the British dominions in the present North-Western Provinces were thus confined to the Benares and Jaunpur tract, Rohilkhand, and the Lower Doáb, including Allahábád and Cawnpore. Next year, however, the treaty of Bassein was signed with the Peshwá, by which he agreed to cede territory to the British of the value of 26 *lákhs* of rupees for the maintenance of an English contingent. By this treaty we obtained possession of Bundelkhand, not without the use of force. Sindhia, however, though nominally the vassal of the Peshwá, resisted the execution of the treaty; and it became necessary to take up arms against him, both in Hindustán and in the Deccan. Lord Lake's campaign in 1803 against Sindhia's French general, Perron, brought the whole remaining portion of the North-Western Provinces under British rule. He took by storm ALIGARH, Sindhia's great arsenal in the Doáb. Thence he advanced upon Delhi, and within sight of the city defeated General Bourquien, another of Sindhia's partisan leaders, and three days later entered the Mughal capital in triumph. Reinstating the blind old emperor, Alam Sháh, whom the Marhattás had long detained as a prisoner, he advanced upon Agra, which capitulated after a tedious siege. By the treaty of Sirji Anjangám, which followed these brilliant successes, Sindhia agreed to

cede all his territories in the Doáb, together with his fiefs on the western bank of the Jumna. The new Districts thus acquired were at once amalgamated with those previously granted by the Nawáb of Oudh, and formed into 'the Ceded and Conquered' Provinces. The Himálayan Districts of Kumáun and Garhwál were not acquired until after the Gúrkha war of 1814-15; while the Delhi territory remained the personal appanage of the Mughal royal family, under the charge of a Resident, until 1832, when it passed to the direct government of the East India Company.

For the first thirty years after the annexation, the North-Western Provinces were administered by the same government as that of Bengal, a portion of the Bengal Board of Revenue being deputed to conduct the duties of that branch, generally at Allahábád, but sometimes on circuit elsewhere in the North-Western Provinces. By the Act of Parliament (3 and 4 Will. IV.), it was to be constituted into a separate Presidency, with a government; but a government had hardly been appointed in 1833 to Allahábád, when the law was suspended by another Act, which held the separation in abeyance, and sanctioned the appointment of a Lieutenant-Governor instead. Shortly afterwards, in 1835, the seat of government was transferred to Agra; but the 'Sudder Board' and 'Sudder Court' (chief revenue and judicial authorities) continued at Allahabad till 1844, when they too were located at Agra. During the Mutiny (1857–58) Lord Canning assumed the government of the North-Western Provinces at Allahábád, which has ever since formed the headquarters of the Lieutenant-Governor, and of all the chief offices of the government. Delhi, the historical metropolis of Northern India, was made over to the Punjab after the Mutiny of 1857.

The first half-century of the British occupation was a period of peaceful progress. Trade and agriculture rapidly developed. Roads were pushed from end to end of the territory; the Eastern Jumna, Ganges, and Lower Ganges Canals were constructed for the irrigation of the Doáb; the predatory chiefs of Bundelkhand and the Gúrkhas were restrained; and the chief cities began once more to revive from the lethargy and decay of the 18th century. The Doáb especially rose into a great agricultural and commercial tract, filled with new and growing cities, such as Cawnpore, Meerut, Alígarh, Rúrki (Roorkee), and Saháranpur. This peaceful period was interrupted by the Mutiny of 1857, which first broke out in the North-Western Provinces, and produced more disastrous effects in this tract than in any other part of India. The earliest rising took place at MEERUT, on May 10, 1857. Having massacred their European officers, the mutinous troopers escaped to Delhi. There they were joined by the Native infantry, who proclaimed the restoration of the Mughal Empire, and forthwith all Hindustán was in a blaze. The subsequent massacre at

CAWNPORE, the rising at ALLAHABAD, and the various local mutinies, will be found detailed at length under their proper headings. Since the repression of the rebellion, the principal event of importance in the Provinces has been the rapid development of the railway system, which is revolutionizing the commercial condition of the country and throwing open fresh outlets for the agricultural wealth of Rohilkhand and the Doáb Districts. The outlying Chief Commissionership of Oudh was placed under the administration of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces on the 17th January 1877.

Population.—The North-Western Provinces contain a denser population than any country of Europe, excepting only Belgium and England (with Wales). If we exclude the Himálayan tract, indeed, and take into consideration only the teeming Gangetic valley, the density of population exceeds that of England itself. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 30,781,204 inhabitants, spread over an area of 81,403 square miles, distributed among 90,684 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 6,359,092 houses. From these figures the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 378; villages per square mile, 1·1; houses per square mile, 78; persons per village, 339; persons per house, 4·8. Excluding the three Himálayan Districts, the density rises to 434 persons per square mile. The highest figure is to be found in Benares District (797 per square mile), and in the adjoining Districts of Jaunpur (659), Gházípur (621), and Azamgarh (597). Next come Agra and Muttra (575 and 551); then the rich Doáb uplands (547 to 395), and the Rohilkhand plain (551 in Sháhjahánpur to 466 in Budáun). The trans-Gogra Districts also rank high, with 528 and 441 respectively. The wilder portions of the Doáb and Rohilkhand are more sparsely populated, Saháranpur and Bijnaur, two submontane Districts, averaging 399 and 388 respectively. Bundelkhand supports a much sparser body of cultivators, reaching only 260 per square mile in Jaláun; 240 in Bánda; and 109 in Lálitpur. The unhealthy Tarái averages 202; while the three mountain Districts of Dehra Dún, Kumáun, and Garhwál, bring up the rear with 114, 72, and 56 respectively.

Classified according to sex, the population consisted of 16,413,642 males and 14,367,562 females. The native population amounted to 16,406,833 males and 14,362,223 females, thus yielding a percentage of 53·3 and 46·7 respectively. The non-Asiatic element was represented by 12,433 persons, of whom 7502 were males and 4931 females. Classified according to age, there were returned, under 12 years—males, 5,559,510; females, 4,650,269; total children, 10,209,779: above 12 years—males, 10,843,353; females, 9,711,415; total adults, 20,554,768: but these figures do not quite accurately correspond with the totals otherwise obtained.

Religion and Caste.—The great mass of the people are still Hindus, although the worshippers of Islám had long been established as the dominant race. The Census of 1872 returned 26,569,074 Hindus, or 86·3 per cent., as against 4,189,348 Muhammadans, or 13·6 per cent. The Christians and 'others,' including the military, amounted to 22,782. The Musalmáns muster strongest in the northern Divisions, those of Rohilkhand and Meerut containing more than half (2,309,549) of the entire Muhammadan population, or 23 and 21 per cent. of their inhabitants respectively. In Benares, Allahábád, and Agra Divisions, they are also numerous, forming a percentage of 10·9, 9·4, and 8·5. In Jhánsi Division, however, comprising the wilder parts of Bundelkhand, the proportion sinks to 4·6 per cent.; while in Kumáun the Musalmán element is almost unknown, amounting to only 1 per cent. The Hindu religion has everywhere left its impress, not only upon the aboriginal tribes and castes, but also upon the invaders; and it frequently happens that the descendants of Muhammadan converts, who may have embraced the faith of Islám at the edge of the sword, retain many Hindu customs, and adhere to purely Hindu observances and ceremonies. As regards the four great caste divisions, the Bráhmans numbered 3,234,342 persons, most numerous in the Allahábád, Benares, and Agra Divisions, their proportion being lowest in Rohilkhand. The Rájputs amounted to 2,395,688, found chiefly in the Agra and Allahábád Divisions. The Banias or trading caste, numbering 1,025,342, reside chiefly in the Upper Doáb, Agra, and Allahábád; they confine themselves to the towns and large villages, where they act as shopkeepers, bankers, and petty money-lenders. The 'other castes' comprised a total of 19,910,230 persons, or nearly three-fourths of the whole Hindu population. Among these the Chamárs, formerly serfs and now the lowest menial class, rank first in point of numbers, with 3,870,801 persons. The Ahírs, cultivators and graziers, were returned at 2,246,933; the Kúrmís at 945,959; the Kahárs at 726,160; the Játs at 724,096; and the Kolís at 707,183. Nearly three hundred less numerous castes find separate mention in the Census Report; and many of these are again minutely subdivided into clans and minor divisions. Classified according to occupation, the 10,352,592 males above 15 years of age fell under the following heads:—Professional, 122,030; domestic, 973,072; commercial, 447,786; agricultural, 5,937,274; industrial, 1,247,004; indefinite and non-productive, 1,625,426. It will thus be seen that the agricultural interest far predominates over all the rest.

Chief Cities.—Most of the people are gathered into small villages. There are, however, no fewer than 204 towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls; and they contain an aggregate of 3,093,941 inhabitants. No other part of India contains so large a proportion of celebrated

cities, though late changes have made over Delhi, the most famous of all, to the adjoining Punjab Province. Thirteen towns possess populations exceeding 50,000, namely—(1) BENARES, on the Ganges, the sacred city of the Hindus, 175,188; (2) AGRA, on the Jumna, once the Mughal capital, and former provincial headquarters, 149,008; (3) ALLAHABAD, at the junction of the two great rivers, the modern administrative centre and a great commercial town, 143,693; (4) CAWNPORE, a creation of British rule and an important military cantonment, 122,770; (5) BARELI (Bareilly), the capital of Rohilkhand, 102,982; (6) MEERUT (Mírath), the commercial centre of the Upper Doáb, and a principal military station, 81,386; (7) FARRUKHABAD, 79,204; (8) SHAHJAHANPUR, 72,136; (9) MIRZAPUR, 67,274; (10) MORADABAD, 62,417; (11) MUTTRA (Mathurá), an ancient and very sacred Hindu town, 59,281; (12) ALIGARH, 58,539; and (13) GORAKHPUR, 51,117. Fourteen towns have a population between 20,000 and 50,000. Other places of interest in the Provinces are—the hill sanitaria of NAINI TAL, LANDAUR, and MUSSOOREE (Masúri); the sacred town of HARDWAR; the ruined sites of KANAUJ and HASTINAPUR; the deserted Mughal capital of FATEHPUR SIKRI; and the ancient temples and fortresses of MAHOBA and KALINJAR. Most of the great towns lie along the banks of the Ganges and the Jumna.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 81,402 square miles, 42,173 square miles were returned in 1875-76 as under cultivation. No part of India bears finer or more luxuriant crops than the North-Western Provinces, and the natural fertility has been much increased by a magnificent series of irrigation works. The course of tillage comprises two principal harvests—the *kharíf* or autumn crops, sown in June and reaped in October or November; and the *rabí* or spring crops, sown in October or November and reaped in March or April. The great agricultural staple is wheat, but millets and rice are also largely cultivated. The chief commercial crops include indigo, cotton, sugar, opium, and oil-seeds. Rice and sugar-cane grow chiefly in the river valleys or in irrigated fields; wheat is raised on the uplands by the aid of canals and wells; millets and cotton grow on the drier soils; while tobacco, vegetables, and other richer crops occupy the manured plots in the neighbourhood of the villages. No statistics are available showing the area under each principal staple. The mode of tillage is simple, scarcely differing from that in vogue during the earliest period of which the Vedas give us information. The system of land tenure is based upon the ancient Aryan communal type, with various modifications from the purest form of joint-village proprietorship down to the separate ownership of particular plots. The three principal recognised tenures are known as—*zamíndárí*, in which the whole land is held and managed in common, the rents and profits of the entire estate being

thrown into a common stock and divided amongst the shareholders, whose rights are estimated by fractions of a rupee or of a *bígha* (the local unit of land measure); *pattidárí*, in which the lands are held severally by the different proprietors, all of whom are jointly responsible to Government for the revenue, though each is primarily responsible; and *bháyáchára*, in which portions of the soil are held severally, while other portions may be held in common, with joint responsibility for the Government demand; and in this case the revenue is made up from the rents of the common land, if any, and by a cess on the individual holdings, apportioned either by custom or on a fixed scale. In *bháyáchára*, the *entire arable* land is generally divided. In the more advanced tracts, such as the Doáb, the Benares Division, and Rohilkhand, rents are usually paid in cash; but in the Himálayan region and in Bundelkhand, they are often rendered in kind. In favoured localities the peasantry are fairly comfortable in circumstances; amongst the hill Districts they are well-to-do and independent; but in Bundelkhand, they still suffer from the effects of former misrule and from the disasters of recent famine. The principal food of the people is wheat, barley, and the millets (*joár* and *bájra*).

Tea.—The cultivation and manufacture of tea in the North-Western Provinces is confined to the submontane Districts of Kumáun, Garhwál, and Dehra Dún. Two indigenous plants (Osyris Nepalensis and Eurya asp.), very similar in appearance to tea, are found growing wild in many of the Himálayan valleys, and were mistaken by early travellers for the genuine Thea viridis. This, however, was first introduced from China in 1835, at the same time that seeds were distributed by the Government in Assam and other parts of India. Until 1842, the cultivation was conducted by Government in a few experimental plots; but in that year, a party of 9 Chinese, with the necessary requisites of manufacture, were brought from Assam to Almorá. The tea they manufactured was favourably reported on in the London market; and from 1843 to 1855 the business was continued, as a department of Government enterprise, under the supervision of Dr. William Jameson. Many mistakes were made at the beginning in the choice of soils and sites, and disappointment and loss resulted to several private planters who followed in the steps of Government. But tea-planting in Kumáun and Dehra Dún has now become a staple industry, though on a smaller scale than was originally anticipated, or than has been attained in the more favoured valleys of Assam. The produce is chiefly manufactured into green tea, which finds a ready sale across the frontier in Central Asia; but some is exported to England. In 1877, there were altogether in the adjoining Districts of Kumáun and Garhwál about 50 gardens, owned by 25 separate proprietors, of whom only two were natives. The total yield was 578,000 lbs., of

which 350,000 lbs. were sold to Central Asian merchants. In 1871, there were 19 gardens in Dehra Dún, of which 7 were owned by natives; the area under plant was 2024 acres; the yield was 300,000 lbs., valued at £17,000. In 1877-78, the total amount of tea despatched by rail from the North-Western Provinces to Calcutta was 800,000 lbs., almost entirely from the railway stations of Sahåranpur, Moradábád, and Bareli.

Irrigation.—The following is a list of the ten systems of productive irrigation works which have been undertaken by Government in the North-Western Provinces:—(1) Ganges Canal, (2) Eastern Jumna Canal, (3) Agra Canal, (4) Dún Canals, (5) Rohilkhand Canals, (6) Bijnaur Canals, (7) Bundelkhand Lakes, (8) Lower Ganges Canal, (9) Bundelkhand Survey, (10) Eastern Ganges Canal. Up to the close of the official year 1877-78, the total capital charges of all kinds amounted to £5,673,400; the total charge for interest in that year was £241,197, while the net income was £294,152, thus showing an actual profit of £52,955. But against this there must be set a sum of £637,826, representing accumulated excess of interest charges over revenue. Of the ten schemes enumerated above, the Eastern Ganges Canal has been definitely abandoned, after an expenditure of £27,000; the Bundelkhand Surveys, with an expenditure of £33,000, and the Lower Ganges Canal, upon which £1,267,000 has been spent, have not yet (1878) yielded any return. Upon the remaining seven systems already in operation, the total capital outlay is £4,346,649, and it is upon this reduced sum that the following figures are calculated. Total gross revenue in 1877-78, £438,136, of which £337,842 was derived from actual water rates, and £100,294 from enhanced land revenue; total working expenses, £143,984, leaving a net profit of £294,152, or 6·77 per cent. on the capital expenditure; interest charges, £185,448, which, deducted from the net profit shown above, gives an actual return to Government of £108,704. According to another method of keeping the accounts, the net profit amounted to 4·95 from direct revenue, and to 7·26 on direct and indirect revenue together. The grand total area irrigated in 1877-78, which owing to the general failure of the rains was the largest yet known, amounted to 1,461,428 acres, thus distributed:—Rice, 221,670; cotton, 105,309; indigo, 210,349; fodder crops, 37,616; wheat, 415,659; other food grains, 262,867; oil-seeds, 6936; fibres, 300; sugar-cane, 139,374; opium, 10,072; other drugs, 1154; garden produce, 31,858; miscellaneous, 18,264. The peculiar meteorological conditions of that year proved conclusively the superior advantages of these great canals, which draw their supply from snow-fed rivers, as compared with those dependent upon smaller streams.

Natural Calamities.—The North-Western Provinces suffer, like the rest of India, from drought and its consequence, famine. The first

great scarcity of which we have definite records occurred in the year 1783-84, and is known as the *chalísa* famine. Little rain fell for over two years; and the apathy of the Native Government, under which the greater part of the Provinces still remained, allowed the calamity to proceed unchecked. Thousands died of starvation; the bodies were not removed from where they lay; no relief was held out to the sick or dying; and universal anarchy prevailed. The distress extended to Benares, where Warren Hastings witnessed its effects. Many villages devastated during this year never recovered, and their sites are still marked by vacant mounds. The next great famine occurred in 1803-04, just after the British occupation of the Doáb. It was most severely felt in that part of the Provinces; but it also caused a rise of prices in the Benares Division and Rohilkhand. In 1813-14, 1828, and 1833 famine again affected the middle and lower Doáb, and produced disastrous results in Bundelkhand.

But the most terrible of all famines, since the British occupation, took place in 1837-38. Its effects extended to all parts of the Provinces. In spite of strenuous efforts on the part of the authorities, much disorganization took place—the peasantry had recourse in some localities to plunder, the cattle starved and died, wells dried up, grass perished, and the people roamed from place to place in the vain expectation of finding food. Lord Auckland, then Governor-General, left Calcutta to take charge of the local government, and sanctioned the employment of the starving poor on relief works. Nevertheless, hundreds of thousands perished of simple starvation, the sick or dying lined the roads, and pestilence followed in the wake of famine. Between January and July 1838, the relief works at Cawnpore were attended by a vast multitude of people. The revenue suffered to the extent of one and a quarter million sterling. This frightful calamity led to increased attention being given to irrigation works; and the Ganges Canal, shortly afterwards set on foot, has been largely instrumental in preventing the recurrence of similar distress. Another famine occurred in 1860-61, when relief works were opened all through the Upper Doáb and Rohilkhand; and Government made every effort to relieve the starving peasantry. In 1868-69, drought once more occurred; but owing to the admirable preventive measures adopted by the authorities, severe distress was confined to the remoter Districts of Bundelkhand. Profiting by the experience of previous years, the Government sketched out beforehand its plan of operations, as soon as it became evident that famine was inevitable; and when the necessity for action arose, each official had his work ready prepared for him. The threatened tracts were marked out into convenient circles, and placed under special superintendence. Works of permanent utility, such as roads and tanks, gave employment to the able-bodied poor,

while the aged and infirm received shelter in poorhouses. Every possible care was taken to prevent cases of starvation; and, except in the more remote parts of Bundelkhand, the distress was greatly mitigated by the action of Government. At the present time, the splendid system of irrigation canals, the network of railway communications, and the good cross-country roads, will probably suffice to protect the Doáb, the trans-Jumna Districts, Rohilkhand, and the Benares Division from the utmost extremity of famine; but the country beyond the Gogra is not yet well provided with means of communication; and the almost isolated position of the Jhánsi Division, combined with the poverty of its soil and the absence of artificial irrigation, render the recurrence of drought in that tract especially dangerous.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The export trade of the North-Western Provinces is chiefly confined to the raw produce of its agriculture. The principal staples include wheat, oil-seeds, raw cotton, indigo, sugar, molasses, timber, and forest produce, dye-stuffs, *ghí*, opium, and tobacco. The imports consist mainly of English piece-goods, metal-work, manufactured wares, salt, and European goods. The chief centres of trade are Cawnpore, Allahábád, Mirzápur, Benares, Meerut, Koil, Háthras, Muttra, Agra, Farrukhábád, Moradábád, Bareli, Sahāranpur, Gháziábád, Kásganj, Bijnaur, Nagína, Najíbábád, Gorakhpur, Gházípur, Pilibhít, and Sháhjahánpur.

The following statistics show approximately the general character of the trade of the North-Western Provinces with Bengal. In 1876-77, the total exports were valued at more than £5,000,000 sterling, chiefly oil-seeds and sugar (each £1,000,000), indigo (£806,000), wheat (£738,000), raw cotton (£590,000), saltpetre and other saline substances (£142,000). The imports were valued at nearly £3,000,000 sterling, mainly confined to European piece-goods (£2,527,000), salt (£177,000), rice (£128,000), cotton twist and yarn (£118,000). By far the largest and most valuable part of the trade is conducted by rail direct with Calcutta, which is the natural seaport of the entire Gangetic valley from Delhi eastwards. In 1876-77, the East Indian Railway station at Howrah, opposite Calcutta, received from the different Districts of these Provinces a total of 135,000 tons of food grain (chiefly wheat), approximately valued at £700,000; 43,000 tons of oil-seeds, valued at £480,000; 11,733 tons of raw cotton, valued at £461,000; 1339 tons of indigo, valued at £750,000; 4230 tons of saltpetre, valued at £71,000. The chief railway marts for the export of grain stood in the following order:—Cawnpore (which sent nearly two-thirds of the total), Etáwah, Meerut, Muzaffarnagar, Mohar in Gházípur District, Háthras, Allahábád, and Alígarh. For the import of piece-goods, the following is the order:—Cawnpore, again far first with more than £1,000,000 sterling, or nearly

one-half the whole; Benares and Zamaniah, in Benares District; Mírzápur, Gházípur, Háthras, Agra, and Allahábád.

The principal manufactures are those of sugar, indigo, and coarse cotton cloth. Ornamental metal-work is made at Benares. The only factories on the English model are the Elgin and Muir Cotton Mills of Cawnpore, the Sháhjahánpur rum manufactory, and the breweries at Mussooree (Masúri) and Náini Tál. The Provinces contain little or no mineral wealth, the quarries being almost entirely confined to the supply of building stone, and of nodulated limestone (*kankar*) for road metal.

Communications.—The great water-ways of the Ganges and the Jumna formerly afforded the principal outlet for the overflowing produce of the North-Western Provinces, and they still carry off a large portion of the heavy traffic. The Gogra forms the main channel for the grain and cotton of Gorakhpur, Basti, and Azamgarh, and for the forest products of Nepál. But a network of railways has superseded the navigable rivers as a means of communication throughout the greater part of the North-Western Provinces. The East Indian Railway from Calcutta crosses the Bengal boundary near Baxar, and runs near the south bank of the Ganges through Mírzápur to Allahábád, giving off a short branch to the shore opposite Benares. From Náini junction, near Allahábád, the so-called Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) branch strikes south-westward, forming the line of communication between Calcutta and Bombay. The main line then crosses the Jumna from Náini to Allahábád, and runs north-westward through the Lower and Middle Doáb, passing Fatehpur, Cawnpore, and Etáwah, sending off a branch to Agra, and continuing by Alígarh and Ghážiábád junction to Delhi. From Ghážiábád, the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway takes up the great trunk line to Meerut, Muzaffarnagar, and Sahåranpur, and crosses the Jumna to Ambála (Umballa) in the Punjab. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, diverging from the central system opposite Benares, runs through Jaunpur to Faizábád, and thence to Lucknow. A branch runs south-west to Cawnpore; but the main line continues north-west to Sháhjahánpur, Bareli, and Moradábád. Another branch runs south-westward from Chandausi, crossing the Ganges at Rájghát, and joins the East Indian line at Alígarh. From Agra, the Rájputána State Railway diverges to Bhartpur; and a narrow-gauge line connects Muttra and Háthras with the East Indian line. Besides this great ramifying system of railways, the Grand Trunk Road traverses the heart of the Provinces, and other good roads connect all the chief towns and villages. The Ganges, Lower Ganges, and Eastern Jumna Canals are also navigable throughout their whole course.

Administration.—The North-Western Provinces are under the administrative charge of a Lieutenant-Governor, who resides at Allahábád. The total revenue in 1875-76 amounted to £5,668,342, and the total

expenditure to £1,871,595. The chief item of receipt is the land tax, which produced during the same year £4,246,744. The only other important sources of revenue are salt, £528,509; stamps, £354,179; and excise on spirits and drugs, £223,614. The total number of the regular police force during the same year, was 25,716 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £338,618. The daily average number of prisoners in all the jails and lock-ups of the Provinces amounted to 23,918, of whom 1124 were females. The 81 municipal towns contained an aggregate population of 2,256,374 persons, with a total revenue of £231,753.

Education is making steady progress throughout the central Gangetic plain, though still very backward in the Himálayan Districts, in Bundelkhand, and in the remoter parts of Rohilkhand and the trans-Gogra tract. As regards higher education, 45 institutions sent up candidates in 1875-76 for the examinations of the Calcutta University; and of the 337 candidates, 174 passed successfully. The whole number of schools and colleges in the Provinces during the same year was 10,069, with a roll of 262,394 pupils, of whom 3960 were Christians, 203,732 Hindus, 54,442 Muhammadans, and 260 belonged to other religions. These figures show an average of 1 school to every 8·08 square miles, and 8·5 pupils to every thousand of the population. The gross amount expended on education was £189,774. Throughout the Provinces, Urdu or Hindustání is spoken by the Muhammadans and Káyasths; but Hindi is the true vernacular of the country, being spoken by the entire rural population with greater or less purity, according to the proportionate influence of Muhammadan colonization. The educated classes usually employ the Persian character; the traders use a corrupt form of the Nágari letters. The Provinces contained 108 printing presses in 1875-76. It should not be forgotten, in the history of Indian education, that under the Lieutenant-Governor, Mr. Thomason, the North-Western Provinces took the lead in the establishment of village schools, and the promotion of primary education. There are now three circles of inspection; and the number of *halkábandi* schools (village circle schools) is now so greatly increased as to bring primary education within easy reach of all who choose to avail themselves of it. The Delhi College at the upper side was the representative in the North-Western Provinces of Arabic and Persian literature, as that of Benares of Sanskrit. There are also a government and Church Missionary Society (St. John's) college at Agra; and there was also a government college at Bareilly, recently abolished. A central college (the Muir Central College) has of late years been established at Allahábád, by which the higher education, in preparation for university honours, is being gradually concentrated.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the North-Western Provinces as a

whole may be classed as hot and dry. The Himálayan Districts are, of course, cool, and have a much greater rainfall than the plains. They are succeeded by a broad sub-montane belt, the Tarái, which is rendered moist by the mountain torrents, and is covered by forest from end to end. This region bears a singularly bad reputation as the most unhealthy in all India, and in many parts only the acclimatized aborigines can withstand its deadly malaria. The plain country is generally warm and dry, the heat becoming more oppressive as the general level of the country sinks towards Allahábád and Benares, or among the hills of Bundelkhand. The mean temperature of 8 stations in 1875-76 was as follows:—Highest monthly maximum, 111·7° F.; lowest monthly minimum, 39·8° F.; general mean temperature, 78·1° F. The highest monthly maximum was 80° F. at Chakráta in Dehra Dún, 110° F. in Meerut, 114° F. in Allahábád, and 115° F. in Jhánsi; the lowest monthly maximum was 18·7° F. at Chakráta, 36° F. at Meerut, 41·8° F. at Allahábád, and 45·8° F. at Jhánsi. The general mean was 53·9° F. at Chakráta, 76·1° F. at Meerut, 77·7° F. at Bareli, 78·8° F. at Allahábád, 79·1° F. at Benares, and 80·9° F. at Jhánsi. The total rainfall during the same year amounted to 78·52 inches at Chakráta, 77·33 at Dehrá, 32·86 at Meerut, 55·15 at Bareli, 51·36 at Allahábád, 43·43 at Benares, and 25·80 at Jhánsi. The chief disease is fever, to which a large proportion of deaths are due. Dysentery and bowel complaints are also endemic, and cholera and small-pox break out from time to time in an epidemic form. The facilities for vaccination, however, afforded by Government, have done much to check the ravages of the last-named disease. The total number of deaths reported in 1875-76 amounted to 671,491, or 21·8 per thousand. The charitable dispensaries established by Government throughout the Provinces gave relief in the same year to 769,636 out-door and 24,129 in-door patients.

Nosang.—Village in the Nágá Hills, Assam; the next most populous after the station of Sámaguting. Lat. 25° 33′ 20″ N., long. 93° 17′ 35″ E.

Nosári (*Navasári*).—Town in the territory of Baroda, in an outlying tract surrounded by the British District of Surat, Bombay; situated on the left or south bank of the river Purna, about 12 miles from the sea, and distant by rail 18 miles south from Surat city, and 149 miles north from Bombay. Lat. 22° 7′ N., long. 73° 40′ E.; pop. (1872), 14,700, consisting of 7892 Hindus, 2247 Muhammadans, 202 Jains, and 4359 'others,' probably Pársís. The PURNA, which is navigable up to this point, is known to mariners as the Navasári river. It admits vessels of 100 tons; but though the bed is broad, the deep channel winds between sandbanks, and cannot be safely entered without a pilot. In 1874, the total exports by sea were valued at £9788; the imports at £2531; grand total, £12,319. In the same year, the traffic at the railway station of Navasári, on the Bombay,

Baroda, and Central Indian line, consisted of 153,071 passengers and 6445 tons of goods. Nosari is a thriving town, its prosperity largely depending upon its large Pársí colony. Many of the Pársís are cotton-weavers; but there are also a considerable number of workers in copper, brass, iron, and wood. The *mahál* or fiscal division of the same name has (1872) a total of 241,255 inhabitants, including 7063 Pársís out of a total of only 7237 Pársís in the whole of Baroda territory, and comparing with 12,841 Pársís in the District of Surat. Nosári has given its name to a gate and market-place in Surat city.

Noung-leng-pyi.—Revenue circle in the Ra-thai-doung township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2428; gross revenue, £1056.

Noung-lún.—Revenue circle in the Gyaing Than-lweng township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2428.

Nowgong (*Náogáon*).—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of Assam, lying between 25° 45′ and 26° 40′ N. lat., and between 92° and 93° 50′ E. long.; bounded north by the Brahmaputra, and south by the Jáintia and Nágá Hills. Area, according to the Revenue Survey which closed operations in 1872, 3415 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1871-72, 256,390. The administrative headquarters are at NOWGONG TOWN, on the east bank of the Kalang river.

Physical Aspects.—The District presents the appearance of a wide plain, much overgrown with jungle and cane brakes. It is intersected by numerous rivers and streams, and dotted with shallow marshes. The general line of drainage follows the inclination of the Brahmaputra valley from east to west. There are two ranges of hills in the District, and several isolated cliffs which rise abruptly out of the swampy plain. Only about one-ninth of the entire area is at present under cultivation. The forests have recently been brought under Government control, and now yield a small revenue. The most valuable timber is the *sál*, but few trees of large girth have survived the days when contractors from Bengal were allowed to cut down timber at their will. Young plantations, however, are now being carefully preserved. Wild beasts of all kinds abound; and it has been found necessary to raise the Government reward for a tiger's head from 10s. to £2, 10s. The number of deaths from wild beasts averages about 50 a year. The fisheries, which are Government property, yield an annual revenue of about £1000. Excellent stone for building and limestone are to be found in many parts of the District, and a salt-mine is reported to exist in the Míkír Hills.

The chief river in Nowgong is the Brahmaputra, forming the continuous northern boundary, which is navigable for steamers and large native

boats all the year through. The river system of the District is constituted by the offshoots and tributaries of the Brahmaputra. The former comprise the Kalang, Sonái, and Leteri, which meander through the northern part of the District, forming a valuable means of communication. The Kalang is navigable for large boats during about six months of the year. The numerous tributaries of the Brahmaputra are hill streams, all rising in the southern ranges and flowing in a north-westerly direction. The principal are the Kapilí, Nanái, Jamuná, Kiling, and Dhaneswari; but altogether it is estimated that about a hundred minor streams become navigable in the rainy season. The Míkír Hills occupy the southern portion of the District, covering a tract about 60 miles in length by 35 in breadth. Their average height is from 1000 to 2000 feet, but the highest peak rises about 3500 feet above sea level. The slopes are very steep, and covered with dense forest, except where they have been cleared by the Míkírs for their patches of nomadic cultivation. The Kámákhyá Hills are a small isolated range, lying near the bank of the Brahmaputra, about 1500 feet high. They are celebrated for an ancient temple of Durgá, and a considerable portion of their area has recently been appropriated for tea-gardens.

History.—Nowgong District possesses no history apart from the Province of Assam generally. The only site of archæological interest is the temple on Kámákhyá Hill, just mentioned. This temple is associated with the founder of the Kuch Behar dynasty, who is variously reported to have been either its original builder or restorer. Indeed, local tradition asserts that Kámákhyá gave its name to the entire valley of Assam, during that troubled period which intervened between the downfall of the old Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp and the arrival of the Ahams. Both Bíjni and Darrang, on the north of the Brahmaputra, which became appanages of younger members of the Kuch Behar Rájá, are spoken of as included within 'the Kámákhyá Kshettra.' It is impossible to fix with certainty the date when the Ahams first obtained possession of this region. Their capital was situated in the neighbouring District of Síbságar farther up the valley; but they had established themselves as low down as Gauháti in the beginning of the 17th century, when they successfully repelled the Muhammadans. When the British drove out the Burmese and annexed Assam, as an incident in the Burmese war of 1823, Nowgong was at first administered as an integral portion of Kámrúp District; all beyond was suffered to remain under various native rulers. The District of Nowgong was formed into an independent revenue unit in 1832. Since that date several changes in jurisdiction have taken place. In 1843, the Subdivision of Golághát, on the farther bank of the Dhaneswari, was transferred to the neighbouring District of Síbságar; and in 1867, the area was still further diminished by the erection of the unsurveyed mountains

towards the south-east into a new District, under the name of the Nágá Hills.

People.—In Robinson's *Descriptive Account of Assam*, published in 1841, the population of Nowgong District is given at about 90,000 souls. An official estimate in 1853 returned the number at 241,000. The first real enumeration, based upon trustworthy data, was the general Census of 1871-72, which in this District was not effected simultaneously in a single night, as in Bengal, but was spread over the whole month of November 1871. It is thought that the returns from some of the villages bordering the southern hills are not absolutely correct; and distrust of the motives of Government in taking the Census was universally felt. The result disclosed a total population of 256,390 persons, residing in 1293 *mauzás* or villages and in 44,050 houses. According to the Revenue Survey which closed operations in 1872, the area amounts to 3415 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 75; villages per square mile, 0·35; houses per square mile, 12. The number of persons per village is 198; of persons per house, 5·8. Classified according to sex, there are 133,107 males and 123,283 females; proportion of males, 51·9 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—49,647 boys and 44,865 girls; total children, 94,512, or 36·9 per cent. of the population. The ethnical division of the population shows 12 Europeans, 2 Americans, and 2 Eurasians; 1 Nepálí, 81,770 aborigines, 80,793 semi-Hinduized aborigines, 83,251 Hindus subdivided according to caste, 202 Hindus not recognising caste, 10,066 Muhammadans, 291 Burmese. A curious feature in this ethnical classification is that the three great classes of aborigines, semi-Hinduized aborigines, and Hindus proper are almost equal in numbers. The great bulk of the aborigines are composed of the cognate tribes of Míkírs, Lalangs, and Cáchárís. The Míkírs, who number 34,583 persons, inhabit that part of the District known as the Míkír Hills, whither they are said to have immigrated in recent times from the mountains farther south. They are a peaceable and industrious race, cultivating the hillside according to the primitive mode of agriculture known as *júm*. They form clearings in the jungle by fire, and raise crops of rice and cotton without any other implement of agriculture than the *dáo* or hill-knife. After three or four years' continuous tillage, they abandon their fields for fresh clearings. The Lalangs, numbering 32,813, and the Cáchárís, numbering 8828, are both reported to have immigrated from the hills of Cáchár during the rule of the Aham kings. They now live in the plains, and have become more or less Hinduized in manners and religion. The Uraons (54), Santáls (5), and Kols (also 5) are labourers from Chutiá Nágpur, employed on the tea-gardens. Of the semi-Hinduized aborigines of the Census Report, the most numerous tribe is the Koch

(41,051), descendants of a people once dominant throughout the country, and identical with the Rájbansís of Bengal, who have rejected their original name. In Assam, however, the appellation of Koch is held in comparative honour, as may be inferred from the local dictum that aboriginal converts do not become pure Koch until seven generations after their admission into the Hindu caste system. The Ahams, the last race of conquerors, who have given their name to the Province, number only 4695 in Nowgong; they have now sunk into the common cultivating class. The Chutiyás (7361) are a tribe of the same origin as the Ahams, and are said to have preceded them in their migration from the hills of Burma. The Doms (19,999) are a race especially numerous in Assam, where they lay claim to exclusive purity of caste, but accept Kolitás in preference to Bráhmans as their spiritual guides. Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans are unusually strongly represented, numbering 6875; the Rájputs number only 20; the Káyasths, 1720; the Jain trading castes from North-Western India, 695 collectively. The most numerous caste is the Kolitá (20,972), the former priesthood of the country, who now rank as pure Súdras, and are engaged in agriculture or Government service. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 245,615, or 95·8 per cent.; Musalmáns, 10,066, or 3·9 per cent. The remainder is made up of 179 Christians (including 163 native converts), 291 Buddhists from Burma, and 239 'others.' The Musalmáns are supposed to be the descendants partly of artisans introduced by the Aham kings, and partly of soldiers left by the Mughal armies. There are a few recent Muhammadan immigrants from Dacca among the class of shopkeepers. The great majority belong to the Faráizí or reforming sect, but they are not actively fanatical. The native Christians are attached to the American Baptist Mission, which has had a branch stationed in Nowgong since 1840, and supports several schools. The Bráhma Samáj, or theistic sect of Hindus, has a few followers among the Bengálís in Government service. According to the Census Report, the Vaishnavs number 39.

As throughout the rest of Assam, the population is entirely rural. There is no town with as many as 5000 inhabitants. The largest place is NOWGONG TOWN, with only 2883 persons. Out of a total of 1293 villages returned in the Census Report, as many as 1207 contain fewer than 500 inhabitants each.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop throughout the District is rice, which supplies two main harvests. (1) The *sálí* or *láhí* is sown about June in low-lying lands, transplanted in the following month, and reaped in December. This furnishes the finest grain and the larger portion of the food supply. (2) The *áus* is sown on comparatively high lands about March, and reaped about July, leaving the field ready for

a second or cold-weather crop of oil-seeds or pulses. A third variety of *báo* or long-stemmed rice is grown to some extent in marshes and along the banks of rivers. The area under rice cultivation has increased by about one-third within the past five years. The only other cereal is Indian corn, grown by the Míkírs on their forest clearings. Miscellaneous crops include mustard grown as an oil-seed, several varieties of pulses, sugar-cane, jute, rhea or China grass, *pán* or betel-leaf, and tobacco. Cotton is cultivated by the Míkírs. The Revenue Survey of 1872 returned only 244,315 acres under cultivation, or one-ninth of the total area, thus subdivided among the different crops:—Rice, 115,550 acres; oil-seeds, 72,458; pulses, 18,000; tea, 2557; cotton, 7050; sugar-cane, 1850; tobacco, 1850; fibres, 600; vegetables, 400; other crops, 24,000. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is used only for tobacco and sugar-cane. Irrigation is commonly practised by the aboriginal cultivators, who divert the water from the hill streams by means of artificial channels. The principle of fallow land is acknowledged in the maxim that *áus* land cannot be kept continuously under crops for more than three years. The abundance of spare land on all sides permits the cultivator to abandon his fields for a new clearing, as soon as their natural fertility becomes impaired. Government is the immediate landlord of the whole soil, and grants leases direct to the cultivators at the following rates of rent:—For *bastú* or homestead land, 6s. an acre; *rupit* or low rice land, 3s. 9d. an acre; *faringháti* or high land, 3s. an acre. The average out-turn from an acre of *rupit* land is estimated at about 18 cwts. of *sáli* paddy or unhusked rice; from an acre of *faringháti* land, 13 cwts. of *áus* paddy, together with 11 cwts. of mustard seed. There are no sub-tenures of land in the District; but the leaseholders from Government sometimes engage labourers on the terms of receiving a certain share of the crop.

Rates of wages have greatly increased in recent years, owing to the introduction of tea cultivation. At the present time, it is almost impossible to procure labour at all. Ordinary day-labourers now obtain from 4½d. to 6d. a day, as compared with 1½d. twenty years ago; skilled artisans receive from 16s. to £3 a month. The price of food grains has approximately doubled within the past twenty years. Common rice sold at 2s. 8d. per cwt. in 1838, at 3s. 5d. in 1860, and at 5s. 5d. in 1870. In the latter year, best rice imported from Bengal fetched 13s. 8d. per cwt., and common unhusked paddy, 2s. 6d. During the Orissa famine of 1866, the price of common rice rose to 8s. 2d. per cwt.

The District is exposed to the three natural calamities of blight, flood, and drought, each of which has been known to affect seriously the general harvest. In 1822, swarms of locusts caused a complete destruction of the crops; a widespread famine resulted, and the price

of unhusked paddy is traditionally reported to have risen to £1, 2s. 6d. per cwt. Similar damage on a smaller scale was inflicted by locusts in 1840, and again in 1858. The low-lying lands are annually inundated by the rising of the Brahmaputra and other rivers, but these floods rarely injure the general harvest. The inundations, however, of 1825 and 1842 are said to have caused much distress; and there is a pressing demand for protective works, in the shape of embankments. Drought is of comparatively rare occurrence; the only scarcity due to this cause happened in 1835, when there was a great deficiency in the local rainfall. If the price of common rice were to rise in January to 7s. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress. The means of communication, both by water and road, are somewhat deficient; and there would be difficulty in throwing supplies of food into the inland portions of the District.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufactures of Nowgong are only sufficient to meet the local demand. The principal industries are the following:—Weaving of silk and cotton cloth; jewellers' work in gold and silver; basket and mat making; and the making of various utensils from brass, bell-metal, and iron. Three varieties of silk are woven, of varying degrees of fineness:—*Bát*, from the cocoons of a worm fed on the mulberry; *mugá*, from a worm fed on the *sum* and *soálu* trees; and *eriá*, from a worm fed on the castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis). Other specialities are a kind of cotton cloth, with finely woven borders of gold or silver thread; and *jápís* or broad-brimmed hats, which serve as umbrellas. So far as can be estimated, the wages of the manufacturing classes vary from 3d. a day in the case of weavers, to 9d. for braziers, and 2s. for goldsmiths.

The commerce of the District is chiefly conducted by river, at the following permanent markets:—Nowgong town, Puránígudám, Kaliábar, Rahá, and Chápari-mukh. The principal articles of export are tea, mustard seed, cotton, jungle products, and a little rice; in return for which are received salt, sugar, oil, *ghí* or clarified butter, and miscellaneous European goods. The profits of trade are almost entirely in the hands of Márwárí traders from the North-West. The principal means of communication are afforded by the rivers; but except the Brahmaputra, none of these are open for navigation all the year through. The main road is one leading from Nowgong town to Gauháti in Kámrúp, which runs through the most populous part of the District for a distance of 44 miles. It crosses several unbridged rivers; and a new line of road adopting a less interrupted course has been laid out by the Public Works Department, but left unfinished from want of funds. The minor roads are under the management of the Deputy Commissioner.

The cultivation and manufacture of tea is largely conducted with European capital and under European supervision, but the soil and

climate are said to be less favourable than in Upper Assam. The tea-plant was first introduced into Nowgong about 1854; but the industry was not carried on to any great extent until after 1861, when the speculative demand for tea property by companies and private individuals led to extravagant sums being paid for suitable land. This season of abnormal activity was naturally followed by a period of depression, from which the industry is now beginning to recover. The difficulty of imported labour has at last settled itself; and at the present time large extensions are being made to the old-established gardens. The statistics for 1874 show a total of 2878 acres under cultivation, with an out-turn of 387,085 lbs., being an increase of one-third on the previous year. The number of European assistants employed was 5, with 51 native assistants; the total number of labourers averaged 2553, of whom 1136 were imported under contract from Bengal.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Nowgong District amounted to £69,073, towards which the land tax contributed £38,000 or 55 per cent., and *ábkárí* or excise £26,550, or 38 per cent.; the net expenditure was £12,573, or less than one-fifth of the revenue. The land revenue has multiplied itself threefold within the past twenty years, despite a diminution in the area of the District. In 1870-71, there were 5 magisterial and 7 civil courts open. For police purposes, the District is divided into 5 *thánás* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force consisted of 161 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £3133. These figures show 1 policeman to every 22 square miles or to every 1592 of the population, the average cost of maintenance being 17s. 2d. per square mile and 3d. per head of population. There is no municipal police force in Nowgong, and the *chaukídárs* or village watch of Bengal are not found anywhere throughout Assam proper. In 1872, the total number of persons in the District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 670, or 1 person to every 382 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. There is one jail at Nowgong town. In 1872, the daily average number of prisoners was 97, of whom 2 were women; the labouring convicts averaged 82. These figures show 1 prisoner to every 2654 of the District population. The total cost of the jail was £647, or £6, 14s. 10d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures did not yield any profit. The death-rate was 20·8 per thousand.

In the spread of education, Nowgong ranks second to Kámrúp among all the Districts of Assam; but as compared with Bengal, the entire Province is in a backward condition. In 1856, there were only 12 schools in the District, attended by 679 pupils. The figures for 1860 show a considerable falling off, but by 1870 the number of schools had increased to 39 and the number of pupils to 1373. This improvement was due to the reform by which grants of money were awarded to

vernacular schools; and since the latter date, the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been further extended to the village schools or *páthsálás.* By the close of 1873, the schools had risen to 85, and the pupils to 2357, showing 1 school to every 43 square miles and 9 pupils to every thousand of the population. In that year, the total expenditure was £1315, towards which Government contributed £832. The chief educational establishment is the Government English school at Nowgong town, attended by 93 pupils. The American Baptist Mission maintains 2 normal schools with 66 pupils, and receives a Government grant of £160.

Nowgong District is divided for administrative purposes into 5 *thánás* or police circles. The Subdivisional system has not yet been extended to the District, and there are no municipalities. The number of *mauzás* or village units for the collection of the land revenue amounts to 127, each under its own *mauzádár* or native fiscal officer.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Nowgong is considered extremely unhealthy, owing partly to the numerous swamps and partly to the utter disregard of sanitary precautions displayed by the native population. Conservancy is enforced only in that part of the civil station which is occupied by Europeans. The prevailing diseases are fever, bowel complaints, small-pox, cholera, cutaneous and venereal complaints, rheumatism, goitre, elephantiasis, and leprosy. Cholera frequently occurs in a sporadic form, and it is said to make its appearance as an epidemic about once in every four years. It has been observed that this disease invariably approaches from the west, advancing along the banks of the Brahmaputra and minor streams. In 1874, the total number of deaths reported by the *mauzádárs* throughout the District was 5296, giving a death-rate of 20·6 per thousand. This rate was, of course, below the truth; but the following classification of the deaths is valuable:—Cholera, 3106; fever, 1226; bowel complaints, 488; small-pox, 196; snake-bites or from wild beasts, 102; wounds and accidents, 43; suicide, 2; all other causes, 153. In the same year, the returns from selected areas showed a death-rate of 43·2 per thousand in the rural area, and 41·9 per thousand in the urban area, which is conterminous with the town of Nowgong. In recent years, cattle plague, apparently introduced from Bengal, has committed great havoc in this District, as throughout the rest of Assam. In 1867, an infectious disease, supposed to be identical with the rinderpest of Europe, is said to have destroyed one-fourth of the total number of cattle. Even wild animals did not escape, tigers, buffaloes, and deer being found dead in the jungle with all the symptoms of the disease. In 1870, this epizootic again made its appearance; and out of 3210 cattle attacked, 2199, or 68 per cent., are ascertained to have died.

Nowgong.—Town and administrative headquarters of Nowgong

District, situated on the east bank of the Kalang river. Pop. (1871), 2883.

Nowgong (*Náogáon*).—A British cantonment in Bundelkhand, Central India; situated between the British District of Hamírpur and the Native State of Chhatarpur. The troops in the Nowgong cantonment belong to the Ságar (Saugor) District within the limits of the Central India Agency. The Rájkumár College of Bundelkhand, established by the native chiefs of Bundelkhand in memory of Lord Mayo, is at Nowgong; it was opened in the year 1875-76, and in its second year there were on the rolls the names of 35 young chiefs, including the minor Rájás of Chhatarpur, Sarila, and Kunyadhana. There is a good metalled road betweeen Nowgong and the *sadr* station of Hamírpur. There is a dispensary at Nowgong. The cantonment is generally described as a healthy one; and in the year 1875-76, an epidemic of cholera, which appeared in Western Bundelkhand, died out to the west of Nowgong.

Nowshera.—*Tahsíl*, cantonment, and town in Pesháwar District, Punjab.—*See* NAUSHAHRA.

Nowshera.—Town in Hazara District, Punjab.—*See* NAUSHAHRA.

Nowshero.—*Táluk* in Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* NAUSHAHRO ALRO.

Nowshero.—Sub-district, *táluk*, and town in Haidarábád District, Sind.—*See* NAUSHAHRO.

Noyil.—River in Coimbatore District, Madras; rises in lat. 10° 55′ 45″ N., and long. 76° 45′ 40″ E., in the Velingiri Hills, and, flowing across the District from west to east, joins the Káveri (Cauvery) (lat. 11° 4′ N., long. 77° 59′ 30″ E.) in Karúr *táluk*. It has 16 anicuts, from which 4322 acres of land are irrigated, yielding in water rates £3400.

Nuddea.—District, Subdivision, and town in Bengal.—*See* NADIYA.

Nuh.—Central *tahsíl* of Gurgáon District, Punjab, lying between 27° 57′ and 28° 10′ N. lat., and between 76° 58′ and 77° 11′ E. long.

Nuh.—Town in Gurgáon District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Pop. (1868), 4575. Situated in lat. 28° 6′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 2′ 15″ E., 30 miles south of Gurgáon town. Entirely dependent upon the manufacture of inferior salt from the saline ponds and earth of the neighbourhood. The process is carried on by evaporation in comparatively deep pans. Residence of a few prosperous merchants, but otherwise insignificant.

Nujikál.—River in Southern India, which rises among the Western Gháts in the north of Coorg. It flows in a westerly direction through the Sampáji valley into the Madras District of South Kanara, and finally falls into the Arabian Sea near Kasergod (Cassergode) under the name of the Basavani.

Nún.—One of the principal rivers of Purí District, Bengal. It rises

in the central portion of the District, and after a south-westerly course falls into the Dayá, in lat. 19° 53′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 38′ E. The united streams find their way, under the name of the DAYA, into the Chilká Lake. The Nún, like the Dayá, is subject to disastrous floods. Its banks are generally abrupt, and in many parts artificially raised and protected by strong dykes.

Nuná.—Great embankment, extending for about 15 miles along the sea face of Ankurá *parganá*, in Balasor District, Bengal. Lat. 20° 58′ to 21° 12′ N., long. 86° 52′ to 86° 55′ E. It is intended to keep out the sea, but sometimes produces as much evil as it was constructed to avert. In 1867, it prevented the floods of the Gammái river from escaping to the sea; but the embankment fortunately gave way before the pressure, and the waters rushed through the breach.

Nundy.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore.—*See* NANDI.

Nundydroog.—Division and hill fort, Mysore.—*See* NANDIDRUG.

Nurábád.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated on the right or south bank of the river Sankh, in lat. 26° 24′ 45″ N., and long. 78° 3′ 30″ E., on the route from Agra to Gwalior fort; distant 60 miles south from the former, and 11 north-west from the latter. The Sankh is here crossed by a well-built masonry bridge of 7 arches. Near the town is a pleasure-ground of considerable size, which contains the mausoleum of Gunna Begam, wife of Ghází-ud-dín Khán, Wazír of Ahmad Sháh, and afterwards of the Emperor Alangír II. (Thornton).

Núr Mahál.—Town in Jalandhar District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 7866, consisting of 3799 Hindus, 3571 Muhammadans, and 496 Síkhs. Situated in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 75° 37′ 45″ E., 16 miles south of Jalandhar town. The site was once occupied by an earlier town, which was restored by Jahángír, from whose empress, Núr Jahán, the present town derives it name. Extensive *sarái*, built at that time, forms the chief object of interest. Important Muhammadan fair, held annually at the tomb of a local saint. Post office, police station, Government vernacular school. Little trade. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £304, or 9⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Núrokal-betta.—Highest peak of the Núrokal range of mountains, a spur of the Western Gháts in the territory of Coorg, forming part of the upper watershed of the Káveri (Cauvery) river. The view from the summit is said to be the finest in Coorg.

Núrpur.—*Tahsíl* of Kángra District, Punjab, lying between 31° 58′ and 32° 30′ N. lat., and between 75° 38′ and 76° 11′ E. long. Area 520 square miles; pop. (1868), 127,368; persons per square mile, 244.

Núrpur.—Municipal town in Kángra District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Pop. (1868), 9928, consisting of 4174 Hindus, 5681 Muhammadans, 72 Síkhs, and 1 'other.' Situated in lat. 32° 18′ 10″ N., and long. 75° 55′ 30″ E., on a small tributary of

the Chakki torrent, 2000 feet above sea level, and 37 miles west of Dharmsála. Formerly the capital of a small Native State. Picturesquely perched upon the side of a hill, crowned by the ruins of a fine old fort, erected by Rájá Basu, who removed his capital hither from the plains. Chief town of the District, both in size and commercial importance. Principal inhabitants—Rájputs, Kashmíris, and Kshattriyas, the last named being descendants of fugitives from Lahore, who fled from the exactions of the later Muhammadan rulers. The Kashmíris settled in Núrpur in 1783, driven from their country by famine; and were reinforced by others from a like cause in 1833. They carry on their hereditary trade of shawl-weavers, the town being famous for the production of these and other woollen fabrics. The shawls are inferior to those of Kashmír or Amritsar; their annual value amounts to about £20,000. *Tahsílí*, police station, post office, dispensary, school-house, staging bungalow, 2 *saráis*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £337, or 11¼d. per head of population (7151) within municipal limits.

Nusseerábád.—Cantonment in Ajmír, Rájputána.—*See* NASIRABAD.

Nusseerábád.—*Táluk* and town in Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* NASIRABAD.

Nusseerábád.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh.—*See* NASIRABAD.

Nusseerábád.—Town in Khandesh District, Bombay.—*See* NASIRABAD.

Nusseerábád. — Town in Maimansinh District, Bengal. — *See* NASIRABAD.

Núzuid.—Town in Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 16° 47′ 25″ N., long. 80° 53′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 6477; number of houses, 1228.

Nwa-ma-ran.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Traversed in the centre by a line of low forest-covered hills; the south-western portion is under rice cultivation. Pop. (1876-77), 2187; gross revenue, £586.

Nyamti.—Municipal village in Shimogá District, Mysore head-quarters of the Honnali *táluk*. Lat. 14° 9′ 10″ N., long. 75° 36′ 55″ E.; pop. (1871), 2571; municipal revenue (1874-75), £385; rate of taxation, 3s. per head. Founded in the beginning of the present century, Nyamti has become a great centre of through trade between the hill country and the plains. The merchants all belong to the Lingáyat sect. The grain, jaggery sugar, and areca-nut produced in the neighbourhood are exchanged for cotton cloth and other manufactured wares brought up from Bellary and Dhárwár.

Nyehattee.—Town in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, and a railway station on the Eastern Bengal Railway.—*See* NAIHATI.

O

O-bho.—Revenue circle in the Kan-oung township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 5289; gross revenue, £1079.

Ochterlony (so called after Colonel James Ochterlony).—A beautiful valley 35 square miles in extent, at an average elevation of 3000 feet above sea level; situated below the south-western wall of the Nílgiri Hills, Madras, between 11° 23′ and 11° 29′ 15″ N. lat., and between 76° 27′ and 76° 34′ 15″ E. long. This valley was first explored by Colonel J. Ochterlony, R.E., in 1844-45, and was at that time covered with virgin forest. Coffee cultivation was introduced in the valley at that time, and there are now 22 coffee estates (occupying 3700 acres). The value of the crop of 1878 was estimated at from £120,000 to £150,000. Cinchona and tea also flourish. The whole valley has been converted into a busy English settlement, employing over 5000 native hands. The 'Guynd' estate contains one unbroken block of 800 acres of coffee in full bearing. The expenditure in the valley is about £90,000 annually.

Od.—Town in Káira District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 37′ N., long. 73° 10′ E.; pop. (1872), 8423.

Oel.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; 8 miles west of Lakhimpur, on the road to Sítápur. It lies in lat. 27° 50′ 30″ N., and long. 80° 46′ 55″ E., on a plain of fine clay soil, beautifully cultivated and studded with trees, intermixed with numerous clusters of bamboos. The two villages Oel and Dhakua adjoin each other and form one town, but the dwelling-houses have a wretched appearance, consisting of ruinous mud walls and thatched roofs. Pop. (1869), 3003, viz. 2643 Hindus and 360 Muhammadans. Handsome temple to Mahádeo. Sugar manufactories.

Okaldangá.—Town in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the craggy bank of the river Kosila, on the route from Morádábád to Almorá, 65 miles north-east of the former town, in lat. 29° 14′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 39′ E. Picturesque situation. Thornton mentions that the rice of Okaldangá is remarkably fine, and bears in commerce the name of Pilibhít rice, being brought to market at that town. Elevation above sea, about 2000 feet.

Old Agartala.—Village in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal.—*See* AGARTALA, OLD.

Old Maldah.—Town in Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* MALDAH.

Old Udáipur.—Village in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal; the ancient capital of Udái Mánikya Bahádur, who reigned over Tipperah in the latter half of the 16th century. Situated on the left bank of the river Gumti, a few miles higher up the river than the village known at present

by the same name. The palace and all the buildings connected with it have long been deserted, and are now surrounded by dense jungle. The wall can with difficulty be traced amidst the profusion of vegetation. Everywhere may be seen the conquest of Nature over the work of man. There are still many houses in excellent preservation within the enclosure already referred to, which seems to have once surrounded all the buildings in the immediate occupation of the Rájá and his family. Others again are fast falling to the ground, but enough remains to show their former strength, and the care with which they were constructed. The walls are rarely less than 4 feet in thickness, and the floors of most of the buildings are raised high above the ground; the brick foundation in one case having an elevation of about 10 feet. There is one two-storied building with large doorways on each side of the upper storey, and on three sides of the lower storey. The doorways are arched, and the neat and simple carving above them is still almost unaffected by the length of time that the place has been deserted. Near this house are several large brick buildings, apparently monuments erected to the memory of deceased Rájás or their queens. The two principal ones are raised on the same brick foundation, and the open space inside each is so small that there is utter darkness in the interior. On the ground outside one of the buildings in the enclosure, lies an iron cannon about 8 feet in length. How it came to Udáipur the hill people do not know, but every man who visits the spot makes an obeisance before the gun, and places on the top a leaf or branch, in the belief that if his offering be accepted, it will be miraculously removed from the position in which he placed it, and covered over by the gun.

Omatwára.—Tract of country in Málwá, Central India, lying between 23° 35′ and 24° 11′ N. lat., and between 76° 23′ and 77° 16′ E. long.; length from north to south, 60 miles; breadth, 55 miles. It includes the Native States of Rájgarh and Narsinhgarh, and parts of Indore and Gwalior; the two former States are under the political superintendence of the Bhopál Agency. The tract takes its name from the Omat Rájputs, a sept of the great Pramara clan, who emigrated from Udáipur (Oodeypore) at an early period, and, during the decline of the Mughal Empire, overran and subjugated this part of the country. Principal towns—RAJGARH, NARSINGARH, and KHUJNIR.

Ongole (*Vangolu*).—Town in Nellore District, Madras; situated in lat. 15° 30′ 20″ N., and long. 80° 5′ 30″ E., on the Musi river, 189 miles north of Madras. Pop. (1871), 7392; number of houses, 1474. A Subdivisional and *tahsíli* station, and originally (1794) the *sadr* or head-quarters station of a Collectorate. Post office, schools, etc.

Oodeynullah.—Battle-field in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal.—*See* UDAINALA.

Oodeypore.—State and town in Rájputána.—*See* UDAIPUR.

Oojein.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India.—*See* UJJAIN.

Ook-kan.—Revenue circle, village, and river in Rangoon District, British Burma.—*See* UK-KAN.

Oomercote. — *Táluk* and town in Thar and Párkar District, Sind.—*See* UMARKOT.

Oomrawuttee.—District and town in the Haidarábád Assigned Districts (Berar).—*See* AMRAOTI.

Oorcha.—State and town in Bundelkhand, Central India.—*See* ORCHHA.

Ooreettoung, East and West.—Townships, revenue circle, and Pagoda in Akyab District, British Burma.—*See* URIT-TOUNG.

Oossoor.—Town in Salem District, Madras.—*See* USSUR.

Ootacamund.—Town in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras.—*See* UTAKAMAND.

Oot-hpo.—Township, revenue circle, and town in Henzada District, British Burma.—*See* UT-HPO.

Oot-poo.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, British Burma.—*See* UT-PU.

Orai.—*Tahsíl* and town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces. —*See* URAI.

Orchhá (*Oorcha, Urchha ;* also known as *Tehri* or *Tikamgarh*).— Native State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand Agency, the Central India Agency, and the Government of India. It lies between 24° 26′ and 25° 34′ N. lat., and between 78° 28′ 30″ and 79° 23′ E. long., to the south of the British District of Jhánsi, being much intermixed with that District. Orchhá is bounded on the west by the Districts of Jhánsi and Lálitpur; on the south by Lálitpur and the States of Tanna and Bijáwar; and on the east by the States of Bijáwar, Charkhári, and Garrauli. Estimated area in 1875, about 2000 square miles. The principal towns are TEHRI, the present capital, and ORCHHA, the old capital. Tehri, where the Rájá now resides, is situated in the south-west corner of the State, about 40 miles from Orchhá, with which town and Baumári it is connected by road. The fort of Tikamgarh within the town, and also the town itself, often give their names to the State. A great portion of the area is covered with hill jungle and poor soil, and is thinly populated. There are some magnificent tanks in the country, many of them constructed by the ancestors of the ruling family. Dense forests afford a safe shelter to *dakáits* or robbers. In 1873-74, a gang of *dakáits* gave much trouble, committing ravages on villages and travellers. The Political officer reported in 1873, that the best form of land settlement for Orchhá is still a problem. He says, 'The native system—under which the State, while recognising

in every village a head-man, who enjoys certain advantages, yet maintains itself as the proprietor of the land, acts as banker and seed-lender for the cultivators, and collects generally in proportion to produce or to area cultivated—avoids sundry of the difficulties unexpectedly found in Bundelkhand to accompany our North-Western Provinces *zamíndárí* system of making the head villager or some one else the proprietor, settling everything with him at a fixed amount, and leaving him and the cultivators to borrow from the money-lender as they need. The former plan as worked in Orchhá, while it keeps existing cultivation fairly together, and is the lightest for the people in bad years, does not give stimulus enough to its extension by allowing villages a sufficiently profitable interest in working up fresh land.'

The State of Orchhá is the oldest and highest in rank of all the Bundela Principalities, and was the only one of them not held in subjection by the Peshwá. The Marhattás, however, severed from Tehri that portion which afterwards formed the State of Jhánsi. Rájá Vikramáditya Mahendra was the ruling chief when the British entered Bundelkhand, and with him a treaty of friendship and defensive alliance was concluded in 1812. When he died in 1834, a disputed succession led to disturbances; but as the adoption of Sujan Sinh was acquiesced in by the neighbouring chiefs, the Government established him in power. Soon afterwards, Sujan Sinh died, and his widow was permitted to adopt Hamír Sinh, a collateral relation of the family. On Hamír Sinh's death in 1874, his younger brother Mahendra Pratáp Sinh, the present Mahárájá, was recognised as his successor. The population of the State was estimated in 1875 at about 195,000. The gross revenue is estimated at 9 *lákhs* of rupees (say £90,000), but about one-half of this amount is alienated in grants to relations of the chief and others. The Rájás of Tehri used to pay a tribute of £300 to Jhánsi. This payment fell to the British Government on the annexation of Jhánsi, but it was remitted as a reward for the loyalty of the Rájá in 1857. The fixed revenue of the village of Mohanpur, amounting to £20, was also remitted at the same time. The chief was granted the title of Mahárájá in 1865. A military force is maintained of 200 cavalry, 4400 infantry, and 90 guns, with 100 gunners.

Orchhá (*Oorcha, Urchha*).—Old capital of Orchhá State, Bundelkhand, Central India; situated in lat. 25° 21′ N., and long. 78° 42′ E., on both banks of the river Betwa. There is an imposing fortress, containing the former residence of the Rájá, and a palace built for the accommodation of the Emperor Jahángír. A wooden bridge connects the fortress with the remainder of the town, which would otherwise be cut off during the rains by a branch of the river.

Orissa.—A Province of British India, forming a Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal;

situated between 19° 28′ and 22° 34′ 15″ N. lat., and between 83° 36′ 30″ and 87° 31′ 30″ E. long. It forms the extreme south-western portion of the Bengal Presidency, being bounded on the north and north-east by Chutiá Nágpur and Bengal Proper; on the east and south-east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south by Madras; and on the west by the Central Provinces. It contains a total estimated area of 23,901 square miles, and an ascertained population (1872) of 4,317,999 persons.

Physical Aspects.—Orissa consists of two distinct territories—a fertile alluvial delta, comprising the three British Districts of CUTTACK, BALASOR, and PURI; bounded on the east and south by the sea; and on the west and north by a wild region of sparsely populated TRIBUTARY HILL STATES, which walls it out from the Central Indian plateau. The following table shows the distribution of Orissa under direct English management, and the Tributary Hill States under their hereditary chieftains in 1872. Changes have since taken place.

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF ORISSA IN 1872.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Pressure of Population per Sq. Mile.	Land Revenue.	Total Revenue.	Total Civil Expenditure.
				£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Cuttack .	3,178	1,494,784	470	84,754 0 0	272,688 0 0	268,791 0 0
Balasor .	2,066	770,232	373	40,434 8 0	59,126 0 0	48,061 0 0
Purí .	2,473	769,674	311	48,561 6 0	124,666 0 0	22,843 0 0
Hill States	16,184	1,283,309	79	None.	8,388 0 0	Included under Cuttack.
Total .	23,901	4,317,999	181	173,749 14 0	464,868 0 0	339,695 0 0

The Orissa delta is formed from the deposits of three great rivers—the MAHANADI on the south, the BRAHMANI in the centre, and the BAITARANI on the north. The two first of these take their rise deep in Central India; the third has a shorter course, and obtains its waters from the hill country of Morbhanj and Keunjhar, which form two of the Tributary States. The three rivers gradually converge towards the coast, and dash down their accumulated waters, within 30 miles of each other, upon Orissa. During summer, their upper channels in the interior tableland dwindle to insignificant streams, dotted here and there by stagnant almond-shaped pools. Including

two other minor streams, the Sálandí and Subanrekhá, they represent the accumulated drainage of 63,350 square miles, which, during the height of the hot weather, only amounts to a discharge of 1690 cubic feet per second. The average cold-weather discharge is, however, 5360 cubic feet per second; but during the rains the rivers rise, as shown in the following table, till they bring down an aggregate of 2,760,000 cubic feet in time of flood:—

THE ORISSA RIVERS.

NAMES OF RIVERS.	Catchment Basin, in Square Miles.	Maximum Discharge in time of Flood. Cubic Feet.	Average Cold-Weather Discharge. Cubic Feet.	Minimum Discharge in May. Cubic Feet.
Mahánadi . .	45,000	1,800,000	3,000	750
Bráhmaní . .	9,000	400,000	1,000	380
Baitaraní . .	3,100	200,000	500	180
Sálandí . .	250	60,000	260	...
Subanrekhá .	6,000	300,000	600	380
Total .	63,350	2,760,000	5,360	1,690

This enormous mass of water falls suddenly upon a narrow level strip of country. The river beds are altogether inadequate to carry off the flood. Thus, while the Mahánadi alone pours down 1,800,000 cubic feet per second in the height of the rains, the whole of its distributaries in the Orissa delta can only discharge 897,449 cubic feet per second. It follows, therefore, that only one-half of the waters thus brought down find an outlet through the deltaic distributaries to the sea. The other half bursts over the banks, and sweeps across the country.

The Mahánadi, as I have pointed out in my *Orissa*, illustrates in a striking manner the biography of a great Indian river. Rising in Central India, 520 miles off, it collects the rainfall of 45,000 square miles, and pours down on the Orissa delta through a narrow gorge just above Cuttack city. In its first stage it runs on a lower level than the surrounding country, winding through mountain passes, and skirting the base of the hills. During this long part of its career, it receives innumerable tributaries from the higher country on both banks. So far, it answers to our common English idea of a river. But no sooner does it reach the delta than its whole life changes. Instead of running along the lowest ground, it finds itself hoisted up on its own

deposits of silt, its banks gradually forming ridges, which rise above the adjacent country. Instead of receiving affluents, it shoots forth distributaries. The silt gradually accumulates in the bed and on its margins, until its channel shallows, and its capacity as an outlet for the waters which pour into it from above diminishes. The same process goes on in every one of the hundred distributaries into which the parent stream breaks up; and as the beds grow more shallow, their total discharging power becomes less and less adequate to carry off the water supply to the sea.

As the rivers in the delta thus gradually build themselves up into high-level canals, so the lowest levels lie about half-way between each set of their distributaries. The country, in fact, slopes gently downward from the river banks, and in time of flood the overflow is unable to make its way back again into the rivers. The waters stand deep upon the harvest fields long after the main channels have run down. They slowly search out the lines of drainage, accumulating in stagnant swamps, drowning the crops, and poisoning the air with malaria, until they dry up or at last reach the sea. Even in periods of quiescence, the rivers form a complicated network of channels, which crawl eastwards by innumerable bifurcations, interlacings, and temporary rejunctions and divergences.

History.—The Bráhmanical archives of the temple of Jagannáth give us our knowledge of the early history of Orissa. These curious relics consist of bundles of palm leaves, neatly cut, and written over with a sharp iron pen, without ink. They furnish a list of 107 kings, and the exact dates for their reigns, from 3101 B.C. (3001?) to the present day. During the first three thousand years of which the palm-leaf records treat, or up to 57 B.C., twelve kings are said to have reigned in Orissa, averaging a little more than 250 years a-piece. The first three of them, who are well-known monarchs of the *Mahábhárata*, divided among them no fewer than 1294 years. At whatever date the Aryan settlement took place in Orissa, we may conclude that it did not start from Northern India, the seat of these kings, before 1807 B.C. The first king with any pretensions to being a local monarch—namely, Sankar Deva—has an assigned reign of from 1807 to 1407 B.C. It is only in the time of his successor, Gautama Deva, however, or between 1407 and 1037 B.C., that we begin to catch the faintest glimpse of Orissa. During this reign, the Sanskrit colonists are said to have pushed their way down to the Godávari river; but it is not till the reign of the sixth monarch, Mahendra Deva, that we hear of the capital city, Rájámahendrí, being founded. This brings us down to between 1037 and 822 B.C., and (apart from such unsafe chronology) the foundation of the Aryan sea-coast kingdom of Kalinga may be reasonably placed about that period.

The last five hundred years anterior to the Christian era were those

in which Buddhism effected its settlements in Orissa. The Ceylon texts place the advent of the Sacred Tooth in Purí at 543 B.C. About this time, the country was repeatedly invaded by the Yavanas from the north. In my *Orissa*, I have gone at length into the question as to the identity of these Yavanas, one of the most interesting enigmas of Indian history. From about 50 B.C. till 319 A.D. the palm-leaf writings yield no materials for the history of the Province; but between 319 and 323 A.D., the last great inroad of Yavanas took place, and for 146 years their supremacy was complete. It is certain that during the period of this long silence on the part of the records, the Buddhists honeycombed the mountains, and excavated the rock monasteries of Orissa, an account of which will be found under RANINUR. In 474 A.D., the Yavanas were finally expelled by Yayáti Kesari, the founder of the Kesari or Lion line, which ruled Orissa until 1132 A.D. The new dynasty was Bráhmanical rather than Buddhistic from the first. Guided by signs and wonders, the orthodox founder of the Kesari line sought out the image of Jagannáth in the jungles, where it had lain hidden during the Yavana occupation, and brought it back to Purí in triumph. During this period the great Sivaite temple at BHUVANESWAR was constructed. A warlike prince of the Lion line, who reigned from 941 to 953 A.D., perceived the military strength of the tongue of land where the Mahánadi first divides itself into several branches, and founded the city of Cuttack, still the capital of Orissa. The Kesari dynasty came to an end in 1132, and was succeeded by Chor-gangá, a king from the south, who by war, assisted by diplomacy, obtained the sovereignty. The new or so-called Gangetic dynasty revolutionized the religion of Orissa. As the monarchs of the Province during the first seven centuries, before the accession of the Kesari line, had been Buddhists, and as that line during the next seven centuries had been Siva-worshippers; so from the coming in of the Gangetic line in 1132 down to the present day, the reigning house have been Vishnuvites. Anang Bhim Deo, the fifth monarch of the dynasty, who reigned from 1175 to 1202 according to the temple archives, was one of the greatest of the Orissa kings. He made a survey of his whole kingdom, measuring it with reeds; and also built the present temple of Jagannáth. A description of this edifice, and a brief sketch of the form of religion it represents, will be found in the article on PURI TOWN. The history of the next three centuries, up to the close of the Gangetic dynasty in 1532, is taken up by a narrative of confused fighting, and of expeditions against the rebellious southern portion of the kingdom, which had always given trouble to the Orissa monarchs. On the death of the last king of the line in 1532, his prime minister murdered every male member of his family, and seized the kingdom in 1534 A.D.

The Muhammadans, who had been harassing Orissa, now closed in upon the usurper and his successors. About 1510, Ismáil Ghází, the general of Husáin Sháh, Afghán King of Bengal, had sacked the capital, Cuttack, and plundered the holy city, Purí, itself. But the Orissa prince was yet able to beat back the invaders. The final defeat of the Hindus took place half a century later. In 1567-68, Suláimán, King of Bengal, advanced with a great army under his general, Kálá Pahár, into Orissa, and defeated the last independent King of Orissa under the walls of Jájpur. The Afghán conqueror, on the defeat and death of the Orissa king, was not content, like previous invaders, with levying a ransom from the Province, but marched through it to its southern extremity, and besieged and captured Purí. His second son, Dáúd Khán, who succeeded to the Governorship of Bengal, threw off all allegiance on the Mughal Emperor at Delhi, and declared himself independent. In the struggle that ensued, the Afgháns were worsted and retired into Orissa. Early in 1574, a great battle took place at Mughalmári, near Jaleswar in Balasor, between the Mughals and the Afgháns, in which the latter were completely defeated. In 1578, after a second defeat of the Afgháns, in which Dáúd Khán was slain, Orissa became a Province of Akbar's Empire, and remained so until 1751, when the Marhattás obtained it. The remnants of the Afgháns still used it as a basis for marauding expeditions, one of which, in 1695-98, attained the dignity of a revolt, and temporarily wrested Bengal and Orissa from the Empire.

Orissa, even after the extirpation of the Afgháns, still remained a source of weakness rather than of strength to the Empire. The internal troubles which beset the Mughal Government prevented anything like a settled government in Orissa; the peasantry were left at the mercy of a succession of rude soldiers, who harried the Province and got together as much plunder as their brief tenure of office allowed them. In 1742, the Marhattás came down upon Bengal, and found Orissa an admirable basis for their annual inroads, exactly as the Afgháns had for their revolts. Nine years later, in 1751, the Governor of Bengal, Alí Vardí Khán, bought them off, by practically ceding to them the Province of Orissa, and agreeing to pay 12 *lákhs* of rupees as *chauth* for Bengal. From that date till 1803, Orissa remained a Marhattá Province.

Wretched as the state of Orissa had been under the Mughals, a half-century of deeper misery remained for it under the Marhattás. Their prince had his capital or standing camp at Nágpur in Central India, whence he waged incessant war with his neighbours. His deputies, who were constantly changed, and imprisoned on their recall, struggled to wring out of Orissa—the only peaceful Province of his kingdom—a sufficiency to supply the military necessities of their master. Whoever had money was the natural enemy of the State. The Province lay

untilled, and any failure of the rice crop produced a famine. Within seven years two terrible scarcities afflicted Orissa. The famine of 1770, a scarcity of much greater intensity than that of 1866, instead of being mitigated by State importations and relief depôts, was intensified by a mutiny of foreign troops. While the people were dying by thousands on every road-side, the Marhattá soldiery threw off the last vestige of control, and for many months ranged like wild beasts across the country. Seven years afterwards, in 1777, another great famine ensued; and as the central Marhattá power at Nágpur decayed, each party into which it split separately harried and plundered the Province.

The conquest of Orissa by the English formed part of the great campaign against the Marhattás in Central India, undertaken by the Marquis of Wellesley. The original plan was that the force, after capturing Cuttack, and leaving a sufficient number of troops to hold it, should make its way by the Bármúl Pass through the Tributary States, and co-operate with General Sir Arthur Wellesley in Berar. The main body of the expedition started from Ganjám in September 1803, and on the 18th entered Purí without opposition. On the 14th October, the fort of Cuttack was taken. Equal success attended the expedition which had been despatched from Bengal against the town of Balasor.

The three principal towns of the Province having fallen into our hands, a part of the force was, in pursuance of the original plan of the campaign, despatched under Major Forbes to force the Bármúl Pass. This detachment had penetrated through the hilly and jungly country which bounds Orissa on the west, and reached the Pass of Bármúl, the key to Berar and the Central Provinces. Here the Marhattás made a last stand; but on the 2d November 1803 the Pass was forced, and the enemy, completely broken and defeated, escaped with difficulty across the hills. The Rájás of Bod and Sónpur, in consequence of this defeat, came to render their submission to the British. Meanwhile, Colonel Harcourt was approaching from the east with the intention of effecting a junction with Major Forbes, and leading the combined force to co-operate with Sir Arthur Wellesley in Berar; but news having come that peace had been concluded both with Sindhia and the Marhattá Rájá at Nágpur, the troops marched back to Cuttack, and the force was broken up early in 1804.

Colonel Harcourt and Mr. Melvill, as Joint Commissioners, thereupon set about placing the civil administration of Orissa on a satisfactory footing. Courts were established, a Land Settlement arranged for, and the Bengal Civil Regulations extended to the Province. The office of the 'Commissioners for settling the affairs of Cuttack' was abolished in 1805, and Orissa was placed under the charge of a Collector, and of a Judge and Magistrate. The headquarters of the Province, which then consisted of only one District, were at Purí until 1816, when they were

removed to Cuttack. In 1829, this unwieldy jurisdiction was split up into the three Districts of Cuttack, Balasor, and Purí, with the non-Regulation Tributary States. The only instances of armed opposition to British rule which have occurred in Orissa Proper since 1803, were the rebellion of the Khurdhá Rájá in 1804, and the insurrection of the Khurdhá *páiks* in 1817-18. A narrative of these events will be found in my account of Purí District, to which they more properly belong.

Population.—The population of the Deltaic Districts was returned in 1872 at 3,034,690, an average of 393 to the square mile, as shown in the following table. Changes have since taken place.

POPULATION OF ORISSA DELTA (BRITISH ORISSA), 1872.

NAME OF DISTRICT.	Area in Square Miles.	Inhabited Houses.	Total Population.	Total Adults.	Total Children.	Total Males.	Total Females.	Number of Persons per Square Mile.
Cuttack	3178	281,430	1,494,784	978,733	516,051	725,330	769,454	470
Purí	2473	143,920	769,674	507,302	262,372	389,449	380,225	311
Balasor	2066	138,913	770,232	502,640	267,592	379,077	391,155	373
Total	7717	564,263	3,034,690	1,988,675	1,046,015	1,493,856	1,540,834	Av. 393

The population of the whole Province of Orissa, including the Tributary States, was 4,317,999, on an area of 23,901 square miles. The people live almost entirely by husbandry. No tendency towards town life, in the European sense of the word, can be detected in this rural Province. Nevertheless, they have cities after their own fashion. The principal of these is CUTTACK, with a population of 50,878, built on the neck of land formed by the first bifurcation of the Mahánadi, at the head of the delta. It is the headquarters of the Provincial Administration, and forms the starting-point of the great system of canals which irrigates the Province. The next important town, from a commercial point of view, is BALASOR, with a population (1872) of 18,263, the official headquarters of the District of the same name, and the earliest English factory on the seaboard of Bengal. PURI, the capital of the third District of Orissa, and the religious metropolis of the Province, has a population of 22,695 persons. KENDRAPARA, with 9442 inhabitants, gives its name to the canal which connects Cuttack with tidal waters. The following table exhibits all the towns of Orissa of over 5000 inhabitants in 1872. Changes have since taken place.

TOWN POPULATION OF ORISSA, 1872.

Towns of 5000 inhabitants and upwards.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians.	Buddhists and Others.	Total Population.	Gross Municipal Income.			Gross Municipal Expenditure.			Rate of Municipal Taxation per head.	
						£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	s.	d.
Cuttack .	40,849	7,436	1968	625	50,878	1617	15	6½	1516	1	9	0	7½
Balasor .	15,094	2,586	432	151	18,263	519	6	4½	513	18	3¾	0	6¾
Purí .	22,340	217	14	124	22,695	1859	15	5	1073	17	9	1	7½
Jájpur .	10,161	576	10	6	10,753	244	3	6	225	0	11½	0	5¼
Kendrapára	9,442	1,225	10	5	10,682	180	1	9¾	169	10	0½	0	4
	97,886	12,040	2434	911	113,271	4421	2	7¾	3498	8	9¾	0	9¼

Religion.—The staple of Orissa is religion. From the moment the Hindu crosses the Baitaraní river he treads on holy ground. On the southern bank of the river rises shrine after shrine to Siva, the All-Destroyer. On leaving the stream he enters JAJPUR, literally the City of Sacrifice, the headquarters of the region of pilgrimage sacred to the wife of the All-Destroyer. There is not a fiscal division in Orissa without its community of cenobites, scarcely a village without consecrated lands, and not a single ancient family which has not devoted its best acres to the gods. Every town is filled with temples, and every hamlet has its shrine. The national reverence of the Hindus for holy places has been for ages concentrated on Purí, sacred to Vishnu under his title of Jagannáth, the Lord of the World. It has been estimated that sometimes as many as 300,000 pilgrims visit Purí in the course of the year; the Car Festival alone having been attended in some seasons by upwards of 90,000. [For an account of the pilgrimages made to this famous shrine of Jagannáth, see PURI.]

Agriculture.—Rice is the great crop of Orissa. The husbandmen have developed every variety of it, from the low-growing plant 18 inches high, to the long-stemmed paddy which rears its head above 6 or 7 feet of water. Their skill in tillage has adapted this cereal to all classes of soil, from the dry uplands to the deep swamps. One variety is sown on low lands in December or January, and is reaped in March or April; another is sown on high lands in May or June, and reaped in July or August; a third, sown at the same time, is reaped in September; a fourth, sown on lands of middling elevation, is reaped in October; a fifth, sown on low lands throughout the whole Province at

the beginning of the rains, yields the great harvest of the year in December. Rice is the bountiful gift of nature to a deltaic population, and is associated in the most intimate manner with the domestic ceremonies of their lives, and with their worship of the gods. They distinguish each stage of its growth and preparation as an article of food. Besides rice, they have wheat, many varieties of pulse and pease, oil-seeds—especially mustard—hemp, tobacco, cotton of two sorts, three varieties of sugar-cane, the costly betel-leaf, tubers, and vegetables of many kinds. The rates of rent vary according to the quality of the soil. From 6s. to 10s. an acre may be taken as the rent of first-class winter rice land, or of the best two-crop land. Medium soils yield from 2s. 6d. to 5s., and inferior lands from 9d. an acre upwards. Expensive and specially exhausting crops, such as tobacco and sugar-cane, pay as high as 25s. an acre, but their average rent is from 12s. to 18s. In Purí District, 10 acres are considered a fair-sized farm, and 30 acres a large holding. In Cuttack District, it is estimated that small holdings of less than 10 acres absorb one-half of the total cultivated area. Very few farms exceed 25 acres. In the District of Balasor, with its 656,000 acres of cultivable land, there are not more than one hundred holdings of from 20 to 100 acres; and the few farms that exist of these dimensions are generally held by families of brethren, who cultivate the land in common. Sixty per cent. of the whole farms were below 10 acres, frequently held by several cultivators in common. The *zamíndárs* made advances of money and seed to the tenants.

Natural Calamities.—Orissa owes to its rivers, not only its rare deltaic fertility, but also some of the greatest calamities which can afflict a country. Besides its copious water supply, amounting to a discharge of 2,760,000 cubic feet per second in time of floods, Orissa has a local rainfall of 62½ inches per annum. Nevertheless, the uncontrolled state of the water supply has subjected the Province, from time immemorial, to droughts no less than to inundation. The flood of 1866 destructively inundated 1052 square miles of the delta, the waters lying from 3 to 15 feet deep in most parts for thirty days, submerging the homesteads of 1⅓ million of husbandmen, and destroying crops to the value of 3 millions sterling. The Province was just emerging from the terrible famine of 1865-66, which swept away one-fourth of the whole population, and the people were looking forward to the approaching harvest as their one chance of safety when this outbreak took place. This inundation does not stand alone. Eleven years previously, an equally ruinous flood had buried the country deeper in water, and forty years ago a tidal wave and river inundation had completely desolated a large part of Balasor District. The floods and droughts of Orissa constituted a yearly charge upon the revenues of the Province, exceeding in absolute outlay three times the whole

revenue derived from the inhabitants of the Tributary States. Engineering skill may ultimately solve the great problem of checking the flood water before it reaches the lower levels, and thereby free the country from the misery and desolation such calamities bring upon it. Much has already been done by Government to husband the abundant water supply. The Orissa canals, which have been fully described in the article on the MAHANADI RIVER, distribute the water for irrigation, and utilize it for navigation and commerce.

Orissa Tributary States.—A cluster of 19 dependent territories which form the mountainous background of the Orissa Division, Bengal. They lie between 19° 52′ 15″ and 22° 34′ 15″ N. lat., and between 83° 36′ 30″ and 87° 13′ E. long. The following table exhibits the 19 States in 1872. Changes have since taken place.

TRIBUTARY STATES OF ORISSA IN 1872.

	Names of States.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Tribute to British Government.	Estimated Revenue of the Chiefs.
1	Angul	881	78,374	...	£3,067 (confiscated).
2	Athgarh	168	26,366	£282	1,494
3	Athmallik	730	14,536	48	800
4	Bánki	150	49,426	...	1,996 (confiscated).
5	Barambá	134	24,261	140	1,200
6	Bod	2,064	108,868	80	1,000
7	Daspalla	568	34,805	66	2,000
8	Dhenkánal	1,463	178,072	509	6,000
9	Hindol	312	28,025	55	1,000
10	Keunjhar	3,096	181,871	197	5,000
11	Khandpára	244	60,877	421	2,445
12	Morbhanj	4,243	258,680	106	10,000
13	Narsinhpur	199	24,758	145	1,200
14	Nílgiri	278	33,944	390	1,945
15	Nayágarh	588	83,249	552	5,000
16	Pal Lahára	452	15,450	Included under Keunjhar	500
17	Ranpur	203	27,306	140	1,500
18	Tálcher	399	38,021	103	1,200
19	Tigariá	46	16,420	88	800
	Total	16,218	1,283,309	£3322	£48,147

A separate article on each will be found under its own name, and the following brief account must suffice here for the whole :—

Boundaries.—The Orissa Tributary States are bounded on the north by the Districts of Singbhúm, Mánbhúm, and Midnapur; on the east by the Districts of Balasor, Cuttack, and Purí; on the south by the Madras petty States of Ghúmsar and Kimidi; and on the west by

the Tributary States of Patná, Sonpur, Rádhákol, Bamrá, and Sárandá in the Central Provinces, and Bonái in Chutiá Nágpur.

General Aspect of the Country.—The Tributary States of Orissa occupy a succession of ranges rolling backwards towards Central India. They form, however, three watersheds from south to north, with fine valleys between, down which pour the three great rivers of the interior table-land. The southernmost is the valley of the Mahánadi, at some places closely hemmed in by peaks on either side, and forming picturesque passes; at others spreading out into fertile plains, green with rice, and watered by a thousand mountain streams. At the Bármúl Pass, the river winds round magnificently wooded hills, from 1500 to 2500 feet high. Crags and peaks of a wild beauty overhang its channel, which at one part is so narrow that the water rises 70 feet in time of flood. From the north bank of the Mahánadi, the ranges tower into a fine watershed, from 2000 to 2500 feet high, running north-west and south-east, and forms the boundary of the States of Narsinhpur and Barambá. On the other side, they slope down upon the States of Hindol and Dhenkánal, supplying countless little feeders to the Bráhmaní, which occupies the second of the three valleys. From the north bank of this river, the hills again roll back into magnificent ranges, running in the same general direction as before, but more confused and wilder, till they rise into the Keunjhar watershed, with peaks from 2500 to 3500 feet high, culminating in Maláyagiri, 3895 feet above the sea, in the State of Pal Lahára. This watershed, in turn, slopes down into the third valley, that of the Baitaraní, from whose eastern or left bank rise the hitherto almost unexplored mountains of Morbhanj, heaped upon each other in noble masses of rock, from 3000 to nearly 4000 feet high, sending countless tributaries to the Baitaraní on the south, and pouring down the Burábalang, with the feeders of the Subarnarekhá, on the north. The hill ranges are densely wooded to the summit, and, except at the regular passes, are inaccessible to beasts of burden. The intermediate valleys yield rich crops in return for negligent cultivation; and a vast quantity of land might be reclaimed on their outskirts and lower slopes.

Population.—The total population of the Tributary States of Orissa consisted in 1872 of 1,283,309 persons, viz. 646,205 males and 637,104 females. The proportion of males in the total population amounted to 50·4 per cent., and the average density of the population is 79 persons per square mile. Classifying the population according to religion, the Census gives the following results:—Hindus, males, 441,711, and females, 437,944; total, 879,655, or 68·5 per cent.: Muhammadans, males, 2130, and females, 1865; total, 3995, or 0·3 per cent.: Buddhist, 1: Christians, males, 163, and females, 140; total, 303: and 'others,' males, 202,201, and females, 197,155; total,

399,356, or 31·2 per cent. Ethnically divided, the population of the Tributary States consists almost solely of (1) Hindu Uriyás, who inhabit the valleys, and who form the largest and most important section of the population; and (2) aboriginal and semi-aboriginal hill tribes, such as Savars, Kandhs, Gonds, Bhumijs, Santáls, Kols, Páns, Bhuiyás, Bathudis, Kháiras, etc. The Census Report ethnically divides the population as follows:—European, 1; aboriginal tribes, 327,652; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 213,490; Hindu castes and people of Hindu origin, 738,171; Muhammadans, 3995; total, 1,283,309.

The aboriginal tribes number 25·53 per cent. of the whole population, being most numerous in the mountainous jungle tracts of MORBHANJ, KEUNJHAR, and BOD. The most important of these are the Kandhs. The Census Report returns the number of these people in the Orissa Tributary States at 75,531, of whom 46,024 are found in Bod (including 34,005 belonging to the Kandh-máls—a tract now under a modified system of British administration). The other States in which the Kandhs are most strong are Daspallá (8382), Angul (5423), and Nayágarh (3928). They are also scattered through nearly all the other States, and are met with in the British Districts of Orissa and Northern Madras. They form one of a group of non-Aryan races, who still occupy the position on the Bay of Bengal assigned to them by the Greek geographers 1500 years ago. The Kandh idea of Government remains purely patriarchal to this day. The family is strictly ruled by the father. The grown-up sons have no property during his life, but live in his house with their wives and children; and all share the common meal prepared by the grandmother. The clan consists of a number of families sprung from a common father; and the tribe is made up in like manner of a number of clans who claim descent from a common ancestor. The head of the tribe is usually the eldest son of the patriarchal family; but if the eldest son is not fit for the post, he is set aside, and an uncle or a younger brother is appointed. According to the Kandh theory of existence, a state of war might lawfully be presumed against all neighbours with whom no express stipulation had been made to the contrary. Murders within the tribe were punished by blood revenge; the kinsmen within a certain degree being one and all bound to pursue and kill the slayer, unless appeased by a payment of cattle or grain. A stolen article must be returned, or its equivalent made good. This may seem a slight penalty for theft. But the Kandh twice convicted of stealing was driven forth from his tribe, the greatest punishment known to the race. A favourite method of settling disputes among the Kandhs was trial by combat. Such duels, and annual raids upon the lowlands, formed the principal recreations of the tribe till they came under British rule, forty years ago. The Kandh is a well-made man; and his boldly developed

muscles, broad forehead, and full but not thick lips, present a type of intelligence, strength, and determination, blended with good humour, which make him an agreeable companion in peace and a formidable enemy in war. He never asks for quarter, and adorns himself for battle as for a feast. The Patriarch or Chief used to send out swift messengers from glen to glen bearing an arrow as a summons to war. Before engaging, each side sacrificed to the gods. The most approved form was to go on fighting day after day, till one side or the other was exterminated. Such a battle yielded a pleasurable excitement, not only to the warriors engaged, but to both their villages. The women and old men stood behind the combatants, handing them pots of water and cooked food, together with much good advice as to the conduct of the fight. The father selects a wife for his son, and usually chooses one older than the boy. The girl may be fourteen, while the boy is only ten. The reason of this is, that the bride remains as a servant in her new father-in-law's house till her boy husband grows old enough to live with her. The Kandh engages only in husbandry and war, and despises all other work. But attached to each village is a row of hovels inhabited by a lower race, who are not allowed to hold land, or to go forth to battle, or to join in the village worship. These poor people do the dirty work of the hamlet, and can never rise in the social scale. They can give no account of their origin; but they are supposed to be the remnants of ruder tribes, whom the Kandhs found in possession of the hills when they themselves were pushed backwards by the Aryans from the plains. The Kandhs have many deities—race gods, tribe gods, family gods, and a multitude of malignant spirits—each one of whom must be appeased with blood. But their great divinity is the earth-god, who represents the productive energy of nature. Twice each year, at sowing time and at harvest, and in all special seasons of distress, the earth-god required a human sacrifice. The duty of providing the victims rested with the lower race of out-castes attached to the Kandh village. Bráhmans and Kandhs were the only two classes exempted from being sacrificed; and an ancient rule ordained that the offering must be bought with a price. Men of the lower race, attached to the villages, kidnapped victims from the plains; and it was a mark of respectability for a Kandh hamlet to keep a small stock in reserve, as they said, 'to meet sudden demands for atonement.' The victim, on being brought to the hamlet, was welcomed at every threshold, daintily fed, and kindly treated, till the fatal day arrived. He was then solemnly sacrificed to the earth-god; the Kandhs shouting in his dying ear, 'We bought you with a price; no sin rests with us.' His flesh and blood were distributed among the village lands, a fragment being solemnly buried in each field in the newly turned furrows. In 1835, the Kandhs passed under British rule,

and these sacrifices had to cease. The proud spirit of the clans shrank from compulsion; but after some hostilities and many tribal councils they gave up their stock of human victims, as a present to their new suzerain. Care was taken by the British Government that they should not obtain fresh ones. A law was passed declaring kidnapping for human sacrifice to be a capital offence; and the Kandh priests were led to discover that buffaloes did quite as well for the earth-god, under British rule, as human sacrifices in the old times. The practice ceased under the firm supervision of the tribes by English officers, who established hill-fairs, made roads, and brought this wild isolated people into mercantile relations with the rest of mankind. The Kandhs have now become a prosperous and rapidly increasing people.

Throughout the whole 19 States, covering an area of 16,218 square miles, and containing a population of 1,283,309 persons, there is only 1 town containing as many as between 5000 and 6000 inhabitants, and only 10 with upwards of 2000. A large village generally gathers around the house or fortress (*garh*) of the Chief; permanent collections of huts grow up at convenient sites for trade along the rivers or roads; but, with these exceptions, a village in the Tributary States simply means the communal homestead of a cultivated valley. Such common homesteads, however, generally contain a larger outside population than the more simple Kandh villages. For, besides the landless low castes, they require a small body of shopkeepers and tradesmen, suited to the more advanced state of social existence which they have reached. The one town with a population exceeding 5000 is KANTILO in Khandpára, situated on the right bank of the Mahánadi. It contains 5534 inhabitants, and is a considerable seat of trade.

Religion.—As in other parts of Orissa, the great mass of the inhabitants of the Tributary States are Hindus, with the aboriginal fetish superstitions more or less distinctly preserved. The number of Musalmáns is very small, and consists of the descendants of those who took service as soldiers under the Rájás in the time of the Marhattás, when there was constant fighting between the various rival States. The Muhammadan religion does not make any progress among the people. In Athgarh there is a village called Chhagan Gobra, and in Nílgiri one called Mitrapur, entirely inhabited by agricultural communities of native Christians. The principal places of pilgrimage are Kopilás in Dhenkánal, Kusaleswar and Jotipur in Keunjhar, Mántir in Morbhanj, and Sámakul in Nayágarh—all of which attract annual crowds of devotees.

Agriculture.—Tillage is conducted in two methods, common to the whole Tributary States:—(1) Rice cultivation in hollows and on low lands, with a command of irrigation. In the valleys, where the mountain rivulets can be utilized, the peasants throw a dam across the stream and store up the water. The lower levels thus secure a supply of

moisture the whole year round, and wet rice cultivation goes on throughout the twelve months. (2) Upland or *táila* cultivation, upon newly cleared patches of land, which depends entirely on the local rainfall. The forest is cut down and burnt upon the spot; and the soil, thus enriched with salts, yields abundant crops of early rice, oil-seeds, and cotton. At the end of four or five years such clearings are abandoned for new ones, and the land relapses into jungle. After years of rest, when a fresh growth of forest has sprung up, the trees and shrubs are again cut down and burnt on the spot, the whole process of clearing and cultivating for another period of five years being repeated *de novo.*

Administration.—The Chiefs rule their territories pretty much according to their own idea of what is right. We leave each State under its hereditary Rájá, and allow him jurisdiction in civil disputes, and in all crimes not of a heinous character. The Chiefs are amenable to the British Commissioner of the Province, in his character as Superintendent of the Tributary States; this officer has jurisdiction in all serious offences, and may imprison criminals for a term not exceeding seven years. Sentences for a longer period, although passed by the Commissioner, must be reported to the Bengal Government for confirmation; and it is the Government alone that can imprison or punish a Chief. The treaty engagements entered into by the Rájás are generally of the following nature:—Besides holding themselves in submission and loyal obedience to the British Government, they are bound on demand to surrender any residents of Orissa who may have fled into their territories, also any of their own subjects who may have committed offences in British territory; to furnish supplies to British troops when passing through their territories; and in case of any neighbouring Rájá or other person offering opposition to the British Government, they are on demand to depute a contingent force of their own troops to assist the forces of Government. Each Rájá pays a small tribute, now fixed in perpetuity, and bearing a very small ratio to his total income. In return for this tribute, we assure them absolute security from foreign enemies, from domestic rebellions, and from inter-tribal feuds. In one case, that of Angul, we have been compelled to dispossess a Chief for waging war; but his family enjoy pensions from Government. In another, that of Bánkí, the Rájá was convicted of flagrant murder and his estate confiscated. Both these States are now under direct Government management, the revenues being collected, and the affairs of the State generally managed, by a receiver (*tahsíldár*). The other 17 States still remain under their native Chiefs; and the only cases of English interference have been to prevent the aggression of the strong upon the weak, or to support the authority of the hereditary Chiefs against their domestic enemies.

Orissa Canal System.—*See* MAHANADI RIVER.

Ouchterlony.—Valley in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras.—*See* OCHTERLONY.

Oudh (*Avadh*).—A Province of British India, under the administration of a Chief Commissioner, now the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. It lies between 25° 34′ and 28° 42′ N. lat., and between 79° 44′ and 83° 9′ E. long. Oudh is bounded on the north-east by the independent State of Nepál, on the north-west by the Rohilkhand Division of the North-Western Provinces, on the south-west by the river Ganges, on the east by Bastí District, and on the south-east by the Benares Division. The administrative headquarters are at Lucknow (Lakhnau), the capital of the former Kingdom of Oudh, and the main centre of population and manufactures. The following table exhibits the area and population of the Province, as given in the Parliamentary Return published in 1879:—

AREA and POPULATION of TERRITORY under the Administration of the CHIEF COMMISSIONER of OUDH (now the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces).

Divisions.	Districts	Area in Square Miles.*	Population. (1869).*
Lucknow, . .	Lucknow, ...	977	778,195
	Unao, ...	1,736	944,793
	Bára Bánki, ...	1,728	1,115,118
Sítápur, . .	Sítápur, ...	2,206	932,959
	Hardoi, ...	2,286	931,377
	Kheri, ...	2,963	739,283
Faizábád (Fyzabad), .	Faizábád, ...	1,649	1,024,092
	Bahráich, ...	2,645	774,477
	Gonda, ...	2,824	1,166,515
Rái Bareli, . .	Rái Bareli, ...	1,752	988,719
	Sultánpur, ...	1,701	1,000,336
	Partábgarh (Pratápgarh), .	1,458	784,156
Included in the Census, but omitted in the rearrangement of Districts, ...		67	18,075
Soldiers, Prisoners, Europeans, and Eurasians, not included above, ...		—	22,137
Total, ...		23,992	11,220,232

* Alterations have been made in the area and population of the several Districts, owing to more accurate survey and to rearrangement of jurisdictions since the Census was taken.

Physical Aspects.—The Province of Oudh, the latest among the great kingdoms of India to fall under the direct authority of the

British Government, forms the central portion of the level Gangetic plain, stretching from the Ganges in the south-west to the foot of the Nepálese Himálayas on its north-eastern boundary. It thus intervenes between two sections of the previously acquired North-Western Provinces, cutting off the Rohilkhand Division from the densely populated country around Benares. Oudh Province presents throughout the monotonous features of a vast alluvial plain, with a slope from the Himálayas to the Ganges. In the extreme east alone, the British frontier extends close up to the lower slopes of the Himálayan system, embracing the damp and unhealthy submontane region known as the Tarái. For 60 miles along the northern border of GONDA and BAHRAICH DISTRICTS, our boundary line skirts the foot of the hills; but westward of that point, it recedes a little from the mountain tract, and the Tarái in this portion of the range has been ceded for the most part to the Native State of Nepál. A narrow belt of Government forest skirts our northern frontier, but all the rest of the Province consists of a fertile and densely peopled plain, only 6 per cent. of the surface being unfit for tillage. No striking features anywhere break the dead level of the horizon. Rivers form the only obstacles to the direct line of communication. Their course is determined by the prevailing slope of the country, which falls away gradually from the Himálayan border towards the Ganges and the sea. The general direction of the incline is thus from the north-west, where the greatest elevation attained (in the jungle-clad Khairigarh plateau of KHERI DISTRICT) amounts to 600 feet, while the extreme south-eastern frontier is only 230 feet above sea level.

Four great rivers traverse or skirt the plain of Oudh in converging courses—the GANGES, the GUMTI, the GOGRA, and the RAPTI. Numerous smaller channels seam the whole face of the country, carrying off the surplus drainage in the rains, but drying up in the hot season. Mountain torrents, fed by the rains and the melting snow, bring down large quantities of detritus, which they spread during floods over the surrounding plain. The deposits thus accumulated consist at times of pure sand, at others of rich clay silt; but in any case their accumulation causes a gradual rise in elevation, and has been accompanied in many parts by the formation of unhealthy swamps at the foot of the hills. All the larger rivers, except the Gumti, as well as most of the smaller streams, have beds hardly sunk below the general level; and in times of floods, caused by the rains or melting snow, they burst through their confining banks and carve for themselves new channels at various points. Oudh possesses another valuable source of water supply in its numerous shallow ponds or *jhíls*, many of which mark the former beds of the shifting rivers. These *jhíls* have great value, not only as preservatives against inundation, but also as reservoirs for irrigation and

for the supply of cattle. Only two amongst them, however, those of Behti in Partábgarh District, and Sándi in Hardoi, deserve the name of lakes. Their areas amount respectively to 14 and 10 square miles.

A country so uniform in its physical features can hardly possess any natural subdivisions; and, accordingly, the various administrative Districts of Oudh do not materially differ from one another in their general aspect. The north-western angle, comprising GONDA and BAHRAICH Districts, is traversed by the river Rápti, and slopes southward to the deeper channel of the Gogra. Along the southern bank of the latter stream stretches the thickly inhabited District of FAIZABAD, and the three together compose the Division of the same name. The north-western Division of Sítápur comprises the three Districts of KHERI, SITAPUR, and HARDOI, extending from the Khairigarh jungles on the north, across the valleys of the Sarda and the Gumti, to the banks of the Ganges opposite Kanauj. The central Division of Lucknow spreads from the Gogra, also to the Ganges, and includes the three populous Districts of BARA BANKI on the east, LUCKNOW in the middle, and UNAO on the west. The south-eastern Division of Rái Bareli likewise contains three Districts—RAI BARELI and PARTABGARH along the left bank of the Ganges, and SULTANPUR on either side of the Gumti.

The soil of Oudh consists of a rich alluvial deposit, the detritus of the Himálayan system, washed down into the Ganges valley by ages of fluvial action. Usually a light loam, it passes here and there into pure clay, or degenerates occasionally into barren sand. Water may be reached at an average depth of 25 feet, with a minimum of 4 or 5 feet in the Tarái tract, and a maximum of 60 feet south of the Gogra. The narrow margin of uncultivable land consists chiefly of extensive *usar* plains, found in the southern and western Districts, and covered by the deleterious saline efflorescence known as *reh*. Only the hardiest grasses will grow upon these waste patches. The efflorescence has been variously attributed to percolation and to over-cropping.

Oudh possesses no valuable minerals. Salt was extensively manufactured during the native rule, but the British Government has prohibited the industry for fiscal reasons. Nodules of carbonate of lime (*kankar*) occur in considerable deposits, and are employed for metalling the roads.

The general aspect of the Province is that of a rich expanse of waving and very varied crops, interspersed by numerous ponds or lakes. The villages lie thickly scattered, consisting of low thatched cottages, and surrounded by patches of garden land, or groves of banian, *pípal*, and *pákar* trees. The dense foliage of the mango plantations marks the sites of almost every little homestead; no less an area than 1000 square miles being covered by these valuable

fruit-trees. Tamarinds overhang the huts of the poorer classes, while the neighbourhood of a wealthy family may be easily recognised by the graceful clumps of bamboo. Plantains, guavas, jack-fruit, limes, and oranges add further beauty to the village plots. The scenery, as a whole, has few claims to attention, except so far as trees and water may occasionally combine to produce a pleasing effect; but the varied colouring of the ripe crops, the sky, and the groves or buildings, often charms the eye under the soft haze of a tropical atmosphere.

The flora of the reserved Government forests is rich and varied. The *sál* tree yields the most important timber; the finest logs are cut in the Khairigarh jungles and floated down the Gogra to BAHRAMGHAT, where they are sawn by steam into planks or beams. The hard wood of the *shisham* is also valuable; while several other timber-trees afford material for furniture or roofing shingles. Among the scattered jungles in various parts of the Province, the *mahuá* tree is prized alike for its edible flowers, its fruit, and its timber. The *jhíls* supply the villages with wild rice, the roots and seeds of the lotus, and the water-nut known as *singhára*.

The fauna of the Province comprises most of the animals and birds common to the Gangetic plain; but many species once of frequent occurrence have now disappeared from this thickly populated tract. Wild elephants wandered till a very recent period in the forests which skirt the north of Gonda, and afforded sport to the Rájás of Túlsipur; now, this animal is practically unknown, except when a stray specimen loses his way at the foot of the hills. Herds of wild buffaloes, which formerly roamed in the woodlands of Kheri, have long since been extirpated. Tigers once swarmed along the banks of the Rápti; but the rewards offered by Government have now lessened their numbers, and they have grown scarce even in the submontane region, being only found in any numbers among the wilds of Khairigarh. Leopards, however, still haunt the cane-breaks and thickets along the banks of streams as far south as the Gogra, and occasionally make prey of calves or pigs. *Nílgái* are found all over the Province, and in the north commit depredations among the crops. Antelope frequent the *usar* plains of the Ganges and the Gumti in great numbers. Innumerable flocks of teal and wild duck stud the *jhíls* during the cold weather; and snipe haunt their reedy banks, though not so plentifully as among the rice-fields of Bengal. Jungle fowl breed in the forests of the Tarái, and peacock abound in every District. Herds of wild cattle, descended from the domesticated stock of villages depopulated under the native dynasty, yet wander among the jungles at the edge of the cultivated land. Wolves and snakes, the chief enemies to human life, are assiduously destroyed in large numbers; but their ravages still occasion much loss of life. The domestic animals include horses, cattle,

buffaloes, donkeys, pigs, sheep, goats, and fowls. Immense herds of dwarfish cattle graze along the submontane belt, and are driven into the higher plateaux for the summer months.

History. — The legendary annals of Oudh date back to the very earliest period of Indian poetry. The sacred city of AJODHYA, from which the Province derives its name, lies close to the modern town of FAIZABAD, and forms one of the holiest places of the Hindu religion. Founded upon the chariot-wheel of the creative god, it ranked as the capital of the Solar dynasty, a line of princes who descended from the sun and culminated after sixty generations in the incarnate deity, Ráma. Whatever faith we may repose in the legends embodied in the *Rámáyana*, there can be little doubt that the Province must have formed one of the earliest seats of Aryan colonization. The burial-place of Muni Agastya, a pioneer of the conquering race, is still pointed out near Colonelganj, a few miles north of the Gogra. At the dawn of history, we find Oudh a flourishing kingdom, ruled over from Srávasti (SAHET MAHET) by a powerful sovereign. In its capital, Sakya Muni began his labours; and the city long remained a seat of learning for the disciples of the Buddhist faith. Six centuries after the first promulgation of the Buddhist religion, Srávasti contributed two of the great schools of doctors who attended at the synod convened by the Scythian conqueror Kanishka in Kashmír.

Ptolemy (150 A.D.) apparently divides the central Gangetic basin between the Tanganoi or Ganganoi, whose southern limit was the Gogra, and the Maroundai or Marundae, whose territories stretch on his map from Central Oudh into the heart of modern Bengal. The first-named people, whose boundaries correspond with the existing Districts of Gonda and Bahráich, seem to have been an aboriginal mountain tribe, ethnically connected, perhaps, with the Thárus. The Marundae were probably a Scythian race, and are known as a trans-Indus people. The information to be derived regarding India from Ptolemy's text and maps, except on the coast-line, can be trusted only when supported by other evidence. I have had to differ in this paragraph from Mr. W. C. Benett, to whose *Introduction to the Oudh Gazetteer* the following article is otherwise much indebted.

The epoch of Ptolemy coincides with the culmination and the downfall of Srávasti, a kingdom which for six centuries or more had maintained a high position among the States of Northern India. Vikramáditya (one of the several but unconnected Vikramádityas in Indian history), the last of its monarchs whose name has come down to us, defeated Megházvahana, the powerful king of Kashmír, and restored the fanes and holy places of Ajodhya, which had completely fallen into neglect. The trans-Gogra kingdom, hemmed in between the river and the mountains, was cut off towards the south by the dominions of the Maraemdai, who had their capital at Patná; and it was to them that

Vikramáditya, or one of his successors, finally succumbed. A legend of Ajodhya faintly preserves the memory of a fierce and bloody war, in which the southern dynasty conquered the territories of Srávasti. The surrounding country became a desert. Two hundred and fifty years later, when the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Fa-Hian (*circ.* 400 A.D.) visited Srávasti as one of the most famous historical seats of his religion, he found the once populous city still marked by lofty walls, enclosing the ruins of numerous temples and palaces but inhabited only by a few destitute monks and devotees (200 households). Hiouen Thsang made a similar pilgrimage in the 7th century, and found the desolation complete. The approach to the ruined city lay through an all but impassable forest, the haunt of numerous herds of wild elephants. The ancient history of Oudh closes with its subjection to Patná; and though we may conjecture that after the fall of the last-named kingdom it formed part of the Kanauj empire, we hear no more of its name as connected with any definite events until a much later period.

It seems probable that this break in the historical continuity of the Oudh annals coincides with the extinction of its ancient civilisation, and the relapse of the country into a barbarous or even uninhabited condition. Forest and jungle appear once more to have spread over the former kingdom of Srávasti, and the aborigines at the same time recovered much of the territory which had been occupied for a while by the Aryan immigrants. It is to the most ancient period, before this relapse, that we should attribute many of the remains of walled towns and forts which occur so plentifully throughout the Province. Local tradition, indeed, universally refers them to the Bhars, an aboriginal people of small stature, the last in the series of extinct ruling races in Oudh. This, however, merely means that they are regarded as possessing considerable antiquity, and as antedating the Musalmán period. It can hardly be doubted that many of the ruins belong to the early Buddhist civilisation which preceded the dark age of Northern Indian history.

The modern chronicles of Oudh begin with the great struggle which ended in the overthrow of Kanauj. The fall of that famous empire, ruled over by the last native Hindu dynasty which could claim the whole country north of the Vindhyán range, gave a final deathblow to the Buddhist faith, and re-established the supremacy of the Bráhman creed throughout all India. During the Kanauj period, the Province of Oudh once more reappears in history. According to local tradition, about the 8th or 9th century A.D., the Thárus, an aboriginal tribe, descended from the hills, and began to clear the jungle, which had overgrown the deserted kingdom, as far as the sacred city of Ajodhya. To the present day, these aborigines are the only people who can withstand the influence of malaria, and so become the pioneers of civilisation in the jungle tracts. About a century later,

a family of Sombansi lineage, from the north-west, subjected the wild settlers to their sway. The new dynasty belonged to the Jain faith, and still ruled at or near the ruins of Srávasti when Sayyid Sálár, the famous Musalmán fanatic and conqueror, occupied Bahráich with his invading force. The remains of that ancient city, whose name has been corrupted into Sáhet Máhet, are even now pointed out as the fort of Suhel Dál, the last of the Sombansi dynasty. Toward the close of the 11th century, Srí Chandra Deo, the Rahtor Emperor of Kanauj, subverted the little northern kingdom; and a local legend keeps alive the memory of its fall. Jain devotees still make pilgrimages to the spot, as the last stronghold of their faith in Upper India; while the only modern building which occupies a place among the mass of ruins is a small temple dedicated to Sambhúnáth.

Meanwhile, Mahmúd of Ghazní had been building up his empire in North-Western India, and the Aryan race was becoming weakened in its outlying possessions. Immediately after the first Musalmán invasion, and the fall of the great powers which ruled in the upper plains, a Bhar kingdom arose in Southern Oudh, the Doáb, and the country between the Ganges and Málwá. The Bhars, like the Thárus, belong to the aboriginal tribes of India, and still exist in considerable numbers on the outskirts of the cultivated area. They occupy themselves in jungle clearing and the chase; and their wide rule at this period seems to show that a forest then spread over almost all Oudh south of the Gogra. The rise of a low-statured, black-skinned race to power on the ruins of their Aryan predecessors, is not without parallel in other parts of India. But their sway was short-lived, and when they were overthrown by Nasír-ud-dín Muhammad, King of Delhi, in 1246 A.D., we reach at last the firmer ground of Musalmán history, under the guidance of Ferishta. The fall of the Bhars introduced the modern elements of society which still remain in Oudh. A number of small chiefships occupied the country, ruled by clans which, whatever their origin, laid claim in every case to a Kshattriya descent. Some of these, such as the Kanhpurias of Partábgarh, the Gaurs of Hardoi, and the Amethias of Rái Bareli, probably belong to tribes which flourished under the Bhar Government. Others, as the Bisens of Gonda and Partábgarh, appear to derive their origin from ancient Kshattriya families, long settled near their present homes. But by far the nobler houses, such as the Bais of Baiswára, the Sombansis of Partábgarh, and the Kalháns of Gonda, are shown by their traditions to have immigrated from distant parts of India.

After his conquest of Kanauj, Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori, or his lieutenant, overran Oudh in 1194. Muhammad Bakhtiyár Khiljí was the first Musalmán to organize the administration, and establish in Oudh a base for his military operations, which extended to the banks of the Brahmaputra. On the death of Kutab-ud-dín, he refused allegiance to Altamsh

as a mere slave; and his son Ghiyás-ud-dín established a hereditary governorship of Bengal. Ajodhya, however, was wrested from the Bengal dynasty, and remained an outlying Province of Delhi. Thereupon a Hindu rebellion ensued, in which 120,000 Musalmáns are said to have been massacred. Prince Nasír-ud-dín was sent to crush the rebellion; and in 1242, Kamr-ud-dín Kairáu is recorded as Viceroy at Ajodhya. Thenceforth the Province remained an integral portion of the Muhammadan empire.

From the date of the final Muhammadan conquest, in the beginning of the 13th century, the history of Oudh becomes extremely involved down to the establishment of the Nawáb Wazírs upon the throne of Lucknow. It is true, the Muhammadan historians of Delhi supply a copious list of imperial governors and successful wars; while the local traditions of *parganás* give some account of the national life. But hardly any points of contact occur between the two. The foreign rule of the Delhi Emperors and their lieutenants took the place of the old paramount powers which formerly dominated over the local Rájás from Kanauj or Patná. The very memory of Hindu nationality in its wider form became extinct, and political interest was confined to the petty affairs of little baronies, no larger than the smallest principalities of Germany. On the other hand, the old and compact social system of the Hindus formed an effectual barrier against the dissolving influence of the Musalmán invasion. Though the foreign overlords reigned supreme over the whole country, the Bráhman still regulated the family life of the people, and the Kshattriya Rájá still gathered their levies to battle, or administered justice in a court ruled by Hindu laws and observances. In spite of tyrannical governors or foreign wars, the cultivator tilled his fields as of old, and paid his customary obedience to his Hindu lord. Thus the two streams of history seldom or never mingle in their course. The fortunes of the great Muhammadan vassals, who ruled over Oudh in the name of the Delhi Empire from BAHRAICH or MANIKPUR, belong rather to the tangled imperial story of the Afghán and Mughal dynasties than to provincial annals; while, on the other hand, the vicissitudes of the little Hindu principalities into which the country was parcelled out afford no material of interest for the general historian.

The newly established Hindu chiefs of Southern Oudh appear during the early days of the Muhammadan supremacy to have been engaged in a desultory warfare with the receding Bhars. As soon as the aborigines had been entirely subdued, the Muhammadan Kingdom of JAUNPUR rose beyond them in the valley of the Ganges. Ibráhim Sháh Sharki, the ablest of the Jaunpur rulers, turned his attention to the fruitful Province which lay in the direct path between his capital and Delhi. He attempted thoroughly to reduce Oudh to the condition of a Musal-

mán country. For this purpose, he placed Muhammadan governors in every principal town, and appointed Muhammadan officials to administer the unknown and hated laws of Islám. During the lifetime of Ibráhim, the most powerful chieftains fled from their homes, and the people sullenly acquiesced. But on his death, the national spirit reasserted itself with all the native vitality of the Hindu creed and its social system. Rájá Tilok Chánd, probably a descendant of the Kanauj sovereigns, led the reactionary movement. Ibráhim's foreign agents fell before the Hindu onslaught, and Tilok Chánd established his own supremacy over the neighbouring chieftains. For a hundred years the land had peace, and the ruling Hindu clans established themselves more firmly in their hold, both by the erection of central forts, and by the planting of new colonies among the uncultivated tracts under the leadership of their younger branches.

Bábar's invasion of Oudh has left little historical record, owing to the mutilated state of the conqueror's memoirs. But a mosque at Ajodhya, on the reputed site of the birthplace of Ráma, preserves the name of the Mughal leader, and suggests the idea that the Hindu princes may probably have rallied around the most sacred site of their religion. In the troubled times which followed the death of the first Mughal Emperor, Oudh became the focus of disaffection against the reigning house. After the final defeat of the Afghán dynasty, and the firm establishment of Akbar, it settled down into one of the most important among the imperial viceroyalties. Akbar's great Revenue Survey contains full details of the fiscal divisions in Oudh. The *parganás* into which the country is still divided afford ample proof of the vitality inherent in the Hindu system, as they almost always coincide with the dominions of a native Rájá. Under the Mughal dynasty in its flourishing days, the Hindu chieftains accepted their position without difficulty. The empire was too strong for them to dispute its sway, and they were too strong for the empire to attempt their suppression. The revenue divisions preserved the limits of their petty States; and their authority, founded on the national creed and engrained in the mental constitution of the people, could not fail to reassert itself on any change of government. The Mughals therefore endeavoured rather to conciliate the native princes than to drive them into rebellion. Their leaders received court appointments or commands in the army, while high-sounding titles and varying grades of dignity soothed the personal vanity of a people singularly impressible by such external signs of respect. The chieftain of Hasanpur Bandhua, descended from an ancient and honourable Kshattriya family, adopted the court religion, and obtained the recognised headship of the southern chiefs, with the right to confer the title of Rájá. But while the Mughal court thus secured the loyalty of the Hindu aristocracy, the strength of the central Government proved

disastrous in another way to the power of the native clans. The younger branches of the ruling houses were enabled to throw off their allegiance towards the heads of their families, and to carve out for themselves petty principalities from the ancestral estates. When the Hindu element again asserted its independence, we find that the ancient Rájás have yielded to the more vigorous amongst the cadets, while the petty States have disintegrated into still smaller baronies, upon which the modern system of *táluks* or divisions presided over by feudal landowners bases itself.

The rise of the Marhattás broke down the decaying empire of Aurangzeb, and the chieftains of Oudh at once acquired an almost complete independence. From time to time an energetic governor at Allahábád might endeavour to realize the revenue and justify the nominal sovereignty of Delhi; but the Hindu princes always met him in arms, and compelled him to relinquish the attempt. Meanwhile, the petty Rájás broke into internecine quarrels, and the ablest leaders enlarged their territories by the conquest of their neighbours. Thus the Kanhpurias of Tiloi, the Bais of Daundia Khera, and the Bisens of Gonda acquired States larger than any that had existed in Oudh since the consolidation of the empire under Akbar.

About the year 1732, Saádat Alí Khán, a Persian merchant of Naishápur, received the appointment of Subahdár of Oudh, and founded the Muhammadan dynasty which ruled down to our own times. His entry was opposed at first by the local Hindu chieftains; but the Bais seem to have yielded without a blow, and the Kanhpurias after a sham resistance, while the Khíchars of Fatehpur—historically a part of the Oudh viceroyalty—were only quelled after a doubtful battle. In the north, the Rájá of Gonda actually defeated the Nawáb's troops, and retained his ancestral State as a separate fief, on payment of a small tribute. Saádat Khán was also Wazír of the Empire, an office which continued hereditary in his family. Before his death, Oudh had become practically an independent State. Faizábád was his nominal capital, but he seldom resided in the town, being constantly absent on military enterprises.

In 1743, Saádat Khán died, and his son-in-law, Safdar Jang, succeeded to the office of Nawáb Wazír, as well as to the principality of Oudh. A man of statesmanlike ability, he found himself exposed to constant attacks from the Rohillás on the one side and the Marhattás on the other. But the country enjoyed great internal prosperity under its two first Nawábs; while the numerous wells, forts, and bridges which they built showed their anxiety to conciliate their Hindu subjects.

With the reign of Safdar Jang's son, Shujá-ud-daulá (1753), a new state of affairs commenced. The Nawáb attempted to take advantage of the war in Bengal between the British and Mír Kásim, to acquire for

himself the rich Province of Behar. He therefore advanced upon Patná, taking with him the fugitive Emperor, Sháh Alam, and the exiled Nawáb of Bengal. The enterprise proved a failure, and Shujá-ud-daulá retired to Baxar. In October 1764, Major Munro followed him up to that post, and won a decisive victory, which laid the whole of Upper India at the feet of the Company. The Nawáb fled to Bareli (Bareilly); while the unfortunate Emperor joined the British camp.

By the treaty of 1765, which followed these events, Korah and Allahábád, which had hitherto formed part of the Oudh viceroyalty, were made over to the Emperor for the support of his dignity and expenses, all the remaining territories being restored to Shujá-ud-daulá, who, reduced to extremities, had thrown himself upon the generosity of the British Government. Three years later, in consequence of some uneasiness as to the designs of the Nawáb, who was ambitious of recovering Korah and Allahábád from the Emperor, an engagement (1768) was entered into for the restriction of Shujá's army to 35,000 men, none of them to be equipped or drilled like English troops. 'At this time,' writes Mr. C. U. Aitchison, from whose *Treaties and Engagements* the later portion of this history is condensed, 'the position of the Marhattás was most threatening. The Emperor had put himself in their hands, and been placed by them on the throne of Delhi, but he had no real power, and his name was used as a cloak for the justification of the Marhattá usurpations. On leaving Allahábád in 1771, the Emperor put the Wazír (Shujá-ud-daulá) in possession of the fort. But when the Marhattás extorted from him the cession of Korah and Allahábád, it was deemed necessary, for protection against the Marhattás, that both the forts of Chanár (Chunar) and Allahábád should be held by English troops, and agreements to this effect were executed on 20th March 1772. The grant of Korah and Allahábád to the Marhattás was considered to be contrary to the meaning of the treaty of 1765, by which these Districts were given to the Emperor for the support of his dignity; and as the Emperor had abandoned possession of them, they were sold to the Wazír for 50 *lákhs* of rupees, and at the same time the Wazír agreed to pay *Sicca* Rs. 210,000 per month for each brigade of English troops that might march to his assistance.'

In 1775, Shujá-ud-daulá died, and was succeeded by his son Asaf-ud-daulá. At his accession, a new treaty was concluded, confirming him in possession of Korah and Allahábád, increasing the payment for British troops, and ceding to the British Government, Benares, Jaunpur, Gházípur, and the possessions of Rájá Chait Sinh. Asaf-ud-daulá soon fell into pecuniary arrears, and attempted to deprive his mother, the famous Bahu Begam, of her property. On the complaint of the Begam, Government interfered, and an agreement was made between Asaf-ud-daulá and his mother, maintaining the latter in the full enjoyment of

her *jágírs*. Asaf-ud-daulá consequently removed from Faizábád (Fyzábád), which had been the residence of his father, to Lucknow, leaving the Begam in undisturbed possession at Faizábád. In 1781, at a personal interview with Warren Hastings at Chanár, a new treaty was negotiated, to give relief to the Nawáb by the withdrawal of all English troops, except a single brigade and one additional regiment, and authorizing the Nawáb to resume *jágírs*, but requiring him to grant equivalent pensions to *jágírdárs* whose estates were guaranteed by the British Government. This was taken advantage of by the Nawáb for the resumption of the *jágírs* of the Begams (Shujá-ud-daulá's mother and widow), which were subsequently in part restored, and for the spoliation of their treasures, on the alleged ground of their being implicated in Chait Sinh's rebellion. Warren Hastings' share in these transactions formed one of the charges against him on his impeachment.

The annals of the reigning dynasty, from the time of Asaf-ud-daulá's removal of the seat of power to Lucknow, have already been fully sketched in the article on Lucknow City (vol. vi. pp. 85-88).

The succession of princes has scarcely any other interest than that of a list of names. Saádat Alí Khán, who succeeded his half-brother Asaf-ud-daulá (1798), threatened by Sindhia on the advance of Zamán Sháh to the Indus, concluded a new treaty with the British in 1801, by which he gave up half his territories in return for increased means of protection. Rohilkhand thus passed under our rule, and the Nawáb became still more absolute within his restricted dominions. Saádat's son, Ghází-ud-dín Haidar (1814), was the first to obtain the title of King. Nasír-ud-dín Haidar (1827), Muhammad Alí Sháh (1837), and Amjad Alí Sháh (1841) followed in rapid succession, and wasted away their lives in that alternation of sensuous luxury with ferocious excitement for which the court of Lucknow became proverbial. In 1847, Wajid Alí Sháh, the last king of Oudh, ascended the throne. The condition of the Province had long attracted the attention of the British Government. In 1831, Lord W. Bentinck had called upon the King for reforms; which, however, were never effected. Twenty years later, Colonel Sleeman, the Resident, made a tour through the country, and reported most unfavourably upon its state. The King's army, receiving insufficient pay, recouped itself by constant depredations upon the people. The Hindu Chiefs, each isolated in his petty fort, had turned the surrounding country into a jungle as a means of resisting the demands of the court and its soldiery. The Resident was of opinion that the paramount power could not overlook the duty which it owed to the people.

The following extracts from Colonel Sleeman's Diary give a graphic description of the state of the Province in 1849-50, six years before it came under British administration:—

'The head-men of some villages along the road mentioned that the fine state in which we saw them was owing to their being strong, and able to resist the Government authorities when disposed, as they generally were, to oppress or rack-rent them; that the landholders owed their strength to their union, for all were bound to turn out and afford aid to their neighbour on hearing the concerted signal of distress; that this league, offensive and defensive, extended all over the Bangar District, into which we entered about midway between this and our last stage; and that we should see how much better it was peopled and cultivated in consequence, than the District of Muhamdí, to which we were going; that the strong only could keep anything under the Oudh Government; and as they could not be strong without union, all landholders were solemnly pledged to aid each other to the death, when oppressed or attacked by the local officers.

'The Nazím of the Tandiawán or Bangar District met on his border, and told me "that he was too weak to enforce the King's orders or to collect his revenues; that he had with him one efficient company of Captain Bunbury's corps, with one gun in good repair, and provided with draft-bullocks in good condition, and that this was the only force he could rely upon; while the landholders were strong, and so leagued together for mutual defence, that at the sound of a matchlock, or any other concerted signal, all the men of a dozen large villages would in an hour concentrate upon and defeat the largest force the King's officers could assemble; that they did so almost every year, and often frequently within the same year; that he had nominally eight guns on duty with him, but the carriage of one had already gone to pieces, and those of the rest had been so long without repair that they would go to pieces with very little firing; that the draft-bullocks had not had any grain for many years, and were hardly able to walk, and he was in consequence obliged to hire plough-bullocks to draw the gun required to salute the Resident. . . . A large portion of the surface is covered with jungle, useful only to robbers and refractory landholders, who abound in the *parganá* of Bangar. In this respect it is reported one of the worst districts in Oudh. Within the last few years, the King's troops have been frequently beaten and driven out with loss, even when commanded by a European officer. The landholders and armed peasantry of the different villages unite their quotas of auxiliaries, and concentrate upon them on a concerted signal, when they are in pursuit of robbers and rebels. Almost every able-bodied man of every village in Bangar is trained to the use of arms of one kind or another, and none of the King's troops, save those who are disciplined and commanded by European officers, will venture to move against a landholder of this District; and when the local authorities cannot obtain the aid of such troops, they are obliged to conciliate the most powerful and unscrupu-

lous by reductions in the assessment of the lands, or additions to their *nankar*."

'To illustrate the spirit and system of union among the chief landholders of the Bangar District, I may here mention a few facts within my own knowledge, and of recent date. Bhagwant Sinh, who held the estate of Etwa Pipária, had been for some time in rebellion against his sovereign, and he had committed many murders and robberies, and lifted many herds of cattle within our bordering District of Sháhjahánpur, and he had given shelter on his own estate to a good many atrocious criminals from that and others of our bordering Districts. He had, too, aided and screened many gangs of *badhaks* or *dakáits* by hereditary profession. The Resident, Colonel Low, in 1841 directed every possible effort to be made for the arrest of this formidable offender, and Captain Hollings, the second in command of the second battalion of Oudh Local Infantry, sent intelligencers to trace him.

'They ascertained that he had, with a few followers, taken up a position 200 yards to the north of the village of Ahrori, in a jungle of palas trees and brushwood in the Bangar District, about 28 miles to the south-west of Sítápur, where that battalion was cantoned, and about 14 miles west from Nimkhar. Captain Hollings made his arrangements to surprise this party; and, on the evening of the 3d of July 1841, he marched from Nimkhar at the head of three companies of that battalion, and a little before midnight he came within three-quarters of a mile of the rebel's post. After halting his party for a short time, to enable the officers and *sipáhis* to throw off all superfluous clothing and utensils, Captain Hollings moved on to the attack. When the advanced guard reached the outskirts of the robbers' position about midnight, they were first challenged and then fired upon by the sentries. The *subahdár* in command of this advance guard fell dead, and a non-commissioned officer and a *sipáhi* were severely wounded.

'The whole party now fired in upon the gang and rushed on. One of the robbers was shot, and the rest all escaped out on the opposite side of the jungle. The *sipáhis* believing, since the surprise had been complete, that the robbers must have left all their wealth behind them, dispersed as soon as the firing ceased and the robbers disappeared, to get every man as much as he could. While thus engaged, they were surrounded by the Gohár (or body auxiliaries which these landholders send to each other's aid on the concerted signal), and fired in upon from the front and both right and left flanks. Taken by surprise, they collected together in disorder, while the assailants from the front and sides continued to pour in their fire upon them, and they were obliged to retire in haste and confusion, closely followed by the auxiliaries, who gained confidence, and pressed closer as their number increased by the

quotas they received from the villages the detachment had to pass in their retreat.

'All efforts on the part of Captain Hollings to preserve order in the ranks were vain. His men returned the fire of their pursuers, but without aim or effect. At the head of the auxiliaries were Pancham Sinh of Ahrori, and Mírzá Akbar Beg of Deuria; and they were fast closing in upon the party, and might have destroyed it, when Girwar Sinh, *tumandár*, came up with a detachment of the special police of the *thagí* and *dakaití* department. At this time the three companies were altogether disorganized and disheartened, as the firing and pursuit had lasted from midnight to daybreak; but on seeing the special police come up and join with spirit in the defence, they rallied, and the assailants, thinking the reinforcement more formidable than it really was, lost confidence and held back. Captain Hollings mounted the fresh horse of the *tumandár*, and led his detachment, without further loss or molestation, back to Nímkhar. His loss had been 1 *subahdár*, 1 *havildár*, and 3 *sipáhis* killed; 1 *subahdár*, 2 *havildárs*, 1 *náik*, and 14 *sipáhis* wounded and missing. Captain Hollings' groom was shot dead, and one of his palanquin-bearers was wounded. His horse, palanquin, desk, clothes, and all the superfluous clothing and utensils which the *sipáhis* had thrown off preparatory to the attack, fell into the hands of the assailants. Attempts were made to take up and carry off the killed and wounded, but the detachment was so sorely pressed that they were obliged to leave both on the ground. The loss would have been much greater than it was, but for the darkness of the night, which prevented the assailants from taking good aim; and the detachment would in all probability have been cut to pieces, but for the timely arrival of the special police under Girwar Sinh.

'Such attacks are usually made upon robber bands about the first dawn of the day, and this attack at midnight was a great error. Had they not been assailed by the auxiliaries, they could not, in the darkness, have secured one of the gang. It was known that at the first shot from either the assailing or defending party in that District, all the villages around concentrate their quotas upon the spot, to fight to the death against the King's troops, whatever might be their object; and the detachment ought to have been prepared for such concentration when the firing began, and returned as quickly as possible from the place when they saw that by staying they could not succeed in the object.'—(*Sleeman's Tour*, ii. pp. 11-18.) Before 1855, the chronic anarchy and oppression had reduced the people of Oudh to extreme misery. Reform by its native ruler had long been hopeless. The only remaining remedy was deemed to be annexation, with a liberal provision for the reigning house.

A treaty was proposed to the King in 1856, which provided that the sole civil and military government of Oudh should be vested in the

British Government for ever; that the title of King of Oudh should be continued to his majesty, and the lawful heirs male of his body; that the King should be treated with all due attention, respect, and honour, and should have exclusive jurisdiction within the palace at Lucknow and the Dil-kusha and Bíbípur parks, except as to the infliction of capital punishment; that the King Wajid Alí Sháh should receive 12 *lakhs* a year for the support of his dignity and honour, besides a sum of 3 *lakhs* for palace-guards; that his successors should receive 12 *lakhs* a year; and that his collateral relations should be maintained separately by the British Government. The King was allowed three days to consider and sign the Treaty. He refused to sign it, and therefore, in February 1856, the British Government assumed to itself the government of Oudh, exclusively and for ever. A provision of 12 *lakhs* a year was offered to the King, which he accepted in October 1859. Separate provision has been sanctioned for his collateral relatives. Wajid Alí Sháh has been allowed to retain the title of King of Oudh, but on his death the title will cease absolutely, and the pecuniary allowance will not be continued on its present scale. Government has purchased a residence for the King in the suburbs of Calcutta; the King has been allowed no jurisdiction within his estate, but provision has been made for serving legal process within its precincts, through the officer who is appointed as Agent with his Majesty on the part of the British Government. In March 1862, an Act was passed to exempt the King from the jurisdiction of criminal courts, except for capital offences; to provide for his trial, if necessary, by commission; to exempt him from appearance as a witness in any court; and to provide for his examination through the Agent to the Governor-General.

On 13th February 1856, the country became an integral part of the British territory. Oudh was immediately constituted into a Chief Commissionership, and organized on the ordinary British model.

Early in the succeeding year, the discontent in the Province burst into open rebellion, as soon as the mutiny at Meerut gave the signal for a general rising. In March 1857, Sir Henry Lawrence had assumed the administration at Lucknow; and on the 30th of May, five of the native regiments broke into mutiny. The remainder of the events connected with the siege and recovery of the capital have been narrated in the article on LUCKNOW CITY, and need only be recapitulated here in brief. A general revolt throughout the whole of Oudh followed upon the defection of the native troops; and by the middle of June the entire Province, save only the Residency at Lucknow, was in the hands of the rebels. On July 4th, Sir Henry Lawrence died from wounds caused by a shell. For twelve weeks the little garrison was besieged by an overwhelming body of mutineers, till relieved by Outram and Havelock on the 25th of September. In spite of this reinforcement, the British

force found itself too weak to fall back upon Cawnpore, and underwent another siege, till again relieved by Sir Colin Campbell on the 17th of November. The women and children were then escorted to Cawnpore by the main body, while General Outram held the outlying post of the Alambágh with a small garrison. Lucknow itself remained in the hands of the rebels, who fortified it carefully under the direction of the Begam of Oudh. Early in 1858, General Franks organized an army at Benares for the reconquest of the Province, and cleared the south-eastern Districts of rebels. At the same time, Jang Bahádur, regent of Nepál, came to our aid with a body of 9000 Gúrkhas, and twice defeated the insurgents with great slaughter. On the last day of February, Sir Colin Campbell crossed the Ganges and marched on Lucknow. Occupying the Dil-kusha palace on 5th March, he effected a junction with Franks and the Nepálese army, and began the siege the next day. The town was captured after a desperate resistance, and the work of reorganization of the Province was rapidly pushed forward. It included a new arrangement with the *tálukdárs* or great feudal landowners, whose title acquired a fresh basis, while their appointment as honorary magistrates soothed their pride.

Since the pacification in 1858, the Province has been administered by its new rulers without further vicissitudes. The opening of railways has afforded fresh outlets for its agricultural wealth; the institution of courts of justice, practically unknown under the Musalmán kings, has given unwonted security to life and property; and the spread of education has done much to develope the naturally keen intellect of the people. On the 17th of January 1877, Oudh was partially amalgamated with the North-Western Provinces by the unification of the two offices of Chief Commissioner and Lieutenant-Governor. Nevertheless, the country remains for most administrative purposes a separate Province.

Population.—Oudh has probably the densest population of any equal rural area in the world. The Census of 1869 returned a total of 11,220,232 persons, spread over 23,992 square miles, yielding an average of 468 persons to the square mile. Belgium, the most populous country of Europe, has a density of only 400 to the square mile, while in England the figures amount to no more than 344. The extraordinary density of the inhabitants becomes still more remarkable from the fact, that whereas European countries contain numerous large seats of manufacture, and import immense quantities of food-stuffs, Oudh has but one considerable commercial centre, Lucknow, and entirely feeds its own teeming millions, besides allowing a large surplus of produce for export. The natural fertility of the soil, and the mildness of the climate, combine to render the Province a thickly peopled tract, and to turn all the industry of its inhabitants into the direction of agriculture.

Classified according to sex, at the date of the Census, the males

numbered 5,822,366, and the females 5,397,866. Classified according to age, the Census shows, under 12 years—boys, 2,186,247; girls, 1,843,467; total children, 4,029,714: above 12 years—men, 3,636,119; women, 3,554,399; total adults, 7,190,518. The religious division yields the following results: — Hindus, 10,003,323; Sikhs, 4752; Muhammadans, 1,197,704; Christians, 7761; unknown, 6692. In spite of the long subjection of Oudh to a Musalmán dynasty, the faith of Islám has far fewer adherents in the Province than in any other Province of Upper India. The Muhammadans, indeed, form only one-tenth of the inhabitants. As elsewhere, they are subdivided among the four classes of Sayyids, Shaikhs, Patháns, and Mughals; and their scattered agricultural groups form centres of refuge from the degrading oppression to which Hinduism consigns the lower castes. The Musalmáns, however, have lost greatly in social prestige since the downfall of the royal line. In the higher ranks, they still number 78 *tálukdárs*. Some of these, as the Rájás of Utraula and Nánpára, trace their descent from local chieftains, who long ago conquered for themselves places in the Hindu hierarchy, and differ in religion alone from their Hindu compeers. Others, amongst whom the great Chief of Hasanpur Bandhua takes first rank, belong to ancient Hindu families, which changed their faith during the days of the Musalmán supremacy, to gain favour at Agra or Delhi. A few later houses owe their position to the offices which they held under the late dynasty of Lucknow. The Muhammadans still provide the British Government in Oudh with its ablest servants, and supply almost entirely the native bar. As cultivators, they are spread widely over the country, and form one of the best of the agricultural bodies; while as weavers they share in the manufacture of cotton cloth. Even more significant than the small number of Musalmáns is the preponderance of Bráhmans, which marks out Oudh as a stronghold of Hinduism. The sacred class numbers no fewer than 1,400,000 persons, being about one-eighth of the whole population. In spite of their enormous social importance, as domestic directors of the whole community, they include only 6 among the *tálukdárs* of the Province; and two of these owe their wealth to the later days of Muhammadan rule. As cultivators, they abound, but make undesirable tenants. One of their great divisions refuses to touch the plough, relying upon wasteful serf labour, and most are lazy and improvident. They supply good soldiers, however, and are often employed in trade. The Kshattriyas, once rulers of the whole Province, and now landholders of the greater part, rank next in importance. Soldiers by profession and hereditary instinct under the old régime, they are now driven to live an idle existence upon estates too narrow for their increasing numbers, and compelled to submit to a poverty which ill accords with

their traditions and feelings. In spite of their predominance in proprietorship, they form only one-twentieth of the inhabitants. The Muhammadans, Bráhmans, and Kshattriyas compose together about a quarter of the population, the quarter which represents the higher social stratum. The remainder consists of the lower Hindu castes, the religious orders which stand outside caste distinctions, and the aboriginal tribes. Amongst the lower Hindus, the Káyasths and Vaisyas, or writing and trading classes, number hardly a million, of whom 700,000 belong to the former division. The Súdras or lowest class of Hindus include 1,160,000 Ahírs, whose proper duty consists in tending cattle, but who also engage largely in agriculture. The best tenantry and most industrious cultivators, however, are to be found amongst the Kurmís and Muráos, who number in Oudh rather more than a million souls. They form the backbone of the wealth of the Province, and have fought well under British officers. Many other Súdra and mixed castes are represented by smaller numbers. At the base of the social superstructure are the aboriginal or semi-Hinduized tribes, the more or less pure descendants of the squat and black-skinned native race whom the Aryan colonists displaced. Some of these, such as the Pásis, who number nearly 700,000, command some consideration as soldiers, and still furnish the greater part of the rural police. Others, like the Bhars and Thárus, live in small isolated groups on the outskirts of the jungle or the hill country, and hold no communication with the outer world. The Nats and Kanjars wander like gipsies over the face of the country, with their small movable villages or wigwams of matting and leaf-screens. The Koris and Chamárs, weavers and leather-cutters, reach the lowest depth of all, having been incorporated into the Hindu system as the most degraded class in the whole structure. In the northern Districts of Oudh, many of them still practically occupy the position of serfs, and descend with their children as bound to the soil, having seldom spirit enough to avail themselves of the remedy afforded by our courts of law. They hold the plough for the Bráhman or Kshattriya master, and dwell with the pigs in a separate quarter of the village, apart from their purer neighbours. Always on the verge of starvation, their lean, black, and ill-formed figures, their stupid faces, and their filthy habits, reflect the long degradation to which they have been hereditarily subjected.

Eighteen towns in the Province have a population exceeding 10,000 persons, according to the Census of 1868, namely—(1) LUCKNOW, pop. 284,779; (2) FAIZABAD, 37,804; (3) BAHRAICH, 18,986; (4) SHAHABAD, 18,254; (5) KHAIRABAD, 15,677; (6) SANDILA, 15,511; (7) NAWABGANJ, 14,489; (8) BALRAMPUR, 13,878; (9) TANDA, 13,543; (10) RUDAULI, 12,517; (11) GONDA, 11,966; (12) BILGRAM, 11,534; (13) ROKHA JAIS, 11,689; (14) MALLANWAN, 11,670; (15) SANDI, 11,123;

(16) LAHARPUR, 10,989; (17) PURWA, 10,880; (18) ZAIDPUR, 10,680. Later figures for the municipal areas will be found under their respective names. Forty other towns have a population exceeding 5000.

Of these towns, only one, Tánda, owes its prosperity to manufactures, and even this prosperity has rapidly sunk before the competition of English textile fabrics. Bahráich, Sháhábád, Khairábád, Sandíla, Rudauli, Bílgrám, Jáis, Sándi, and Zaidpur were originally military colonies of the Muhammadans, and now share the decay of the Musalmán power. Balrámpur, Gonda, Láharpur, Purwá, and Mallánwán trace their origin to little centres where grain merchants and money-dealers collected round the protecting fort of a Hindu chieftain. And Faizábád and Lucknow sprang up about the courts of the Nawáb Wazírs, who selected them for their residence. But the population of the country is essentially rural, spread over its whole surface in small cultivating communities. The Census returns the number of separate hamlets at above 77,000, and the average number of inhabitants to each at only 150. The people are nowhere drawn together by the complex wants of our familiar European civilisation. A few huts, clustering close to one another in the immediate neighbourhood of the fields, form the real unit of society. Small centres of trade, where the simple wants of the villagers may be supplied, occur at distances of 2 or 3 miles, and consist of a few mud cottages, together with the tiled and two-storied house of the grain merchant and money-lender. In their dwellings, as in their clothes and food, the wants of the people are very modest. Out of a total of 2,610,000 houses, only 19,400 are of brick. Most of the latter were erected by Muhammadan settlers in the days of their prosperity. The Hindu chieftain fortified himself in an enclosure surrounded by a moat, and defended by a thick belt of prickly shrubbery; and though our peaceful rule has made the fort an anachronism, the habits of past generations still influence the existing race. As many as 92 per cent. of the population belong to the rural class, only 8 per cent. dwelling in towns. The purely agricultural element may be conjecturally placed at 72 per cent.

Agriculture.—The year is divided into three harvests—the *kharíf*, sown at the commencement of the rains and cut in September; the *henwat* or *aghǽni*, reaped in December; and the *rabí*, reaped in March. But besides these regular season crops, sugar-cane comes to maturity in February, cotton in May, and *sánwán* in almost any month of the year. The principal *kharíf* staples are rice, Indian corn, and millets. Rice grows best on low stiff land, where the water accumulates for considerable periods. Its yield in good localities is returned as high as 2600 lbs. per acre. Indian corn thrives on a light soil, raised slightly above the floods, and produces from two to four cobs on each stalk. The yield varies from 2000 lbs. per acre, as a good crop, to

3300 lbs. under exceptionally favourable circumstances. The smaller millets occupy inferior ground, demand less attention, and produce a poorer out-turn. Fine rice, transplanted in August from nurseries near the village sites, forms the most valuable item of the *henwat* harvest. The average yield rises at least 20 per cent. higher than that of the autumnal varieties, and the grain is smaller and better flavoured. Contrary to the rule of the European market, the price varies conversely with the size, native taste preferring the smallest kind. The other *henwat* staples comprise mustard, grown as an oil-seed, together with *múg* and *másh*, two small species of pulse. Wheat forms the main *rabí* crop, an average good yield amounting to 10 *maunds* per *bígha*, or 1300 lbs. per acre. Sugar, which shares with rice, wheat, and oil-seeds a first place among Oudh products, occupies the land a whole year, being laid down in March, and not cut till the following February. It requires much labour and several waterings, but the result in ordinary years amply repays the outlay, the produce of a single acre being often sold at over £10. Numerous other crops are grown on small areas, and gardens surround the village sites. In a purely agricultural Province like Oudh, where the absence of rain for eight months in the year precludes the growth of natural grasses, much land is brought under the plough which would elsewhere be laid down in pasture.

Land Survey and Settlement.—The two great historical facts in the land history of Oudh are the first British annexation in 1856, and the pacification after the Mutiny. Oudh only became a British Province after the supression of the rebellion; and the present revenue settlement, 'made upon the battle-field,' possesses rather the character of a political amnesty. When we first took possession of the country, in February 1856, it was determined to effect a settlement of the land revenue, village by village, according to the system prevailing in the North-West Provinces. The desire was to deal directly with the actual occupants of the soil, whether petty proprietors or coparcenary communities, and to avoid the interposition of middle-men. But the great *tálukdárs* of Oudh, whose position was thus too much ignored, were not mere middle-men, employed by the State to collect revenue from the cultivators. Heads of powerful clans, and representatives of ancient families, they were, in truth, a feudal aristocracy, based upon rights in the soil, which went back to traditional times and were heartily acknowledged by their dependants. At the date of annexation, 23,500 villages, or about two-thirds of the total area of the Province, were in their possession. The new Settlement paid no regard to their claims. The great estate of Maháráján Mán Sinh, which included 577 villages and paid a revenue of £20,000, was reduced by the stroke of a pen to 6 villages; and the Maháráján was left with an income of £300. Another ancient estate lost 266 villages out of 378; in a third, 155 villages were

confiscated out of 204. While this work of disinheritance was going on, the Mutiny suddenly stopped operations. But it is not difficult to understand why in Oudh alone the entire mass of the landowning classes joined the Sepoys, and the mutiny became a rebellion.

When order was at last restored, in March 1858, Lord Canning, as Governor-General, issued his celebrated proclamation, confiscating the proprietary right in the whole soil of Oudh. The task of building up from the foundation a new system of land administration was entrusted to Sir Robert Montgomery, the first Commissioner after the Mutiny, and was finally carried into execution in 1859 by his successor, Sir Charles Wingfield. The principle adopted was to restore to the *tálukdárs* all that they had formerly possessed, but in such a manner that their rights should depend upon the immediate grant of the British Government. They were invited to come to Lucknow, under promise of a safe conduct. About two-thirds of the number accepted this invitation, and there concluded political arrangements with the Government, defining the mutual obligations of either party. On the one hand, the *tálukdárs* bound themselves to level all forts, give up arms, and act loyally; to pay punctually the revenue assessed upon them and the wages of the village officials, and to assist the police in keeping order. On the other hand, the British Government conferred a right of property, unknown alike to Hindu or Muhammadan law, comprising full power of alienation by will, and succession according to primogeniture in case of intestacy. The land revenue demand was fixed at one-half the gross rental; subordinate tenure-holders were confirmed in their ancient privileges; and a clause was introduced to protect the actual cultivators from extortion. Such were the main features of the *sanads* issued by Sir C. Wingfield in October 1859, which constitute the land system of Oudh to the present day, subject to a few minor modifications. The option of reverting to the Hindu or Muhammadan law of succession, or to the ancient custom of the family, has been granted to every *tálukdár*, subject to a record in the Oudh Estates List of the rule applicable to each estate; but the right to transfer or bequeath is still retained.

The detailed operations for giving effect to this Settlement were carried out by a revenue survey, begun in 1860 and finished in 1871. This survey was conducted both by villages and by fields. Out of the total area of the Province, which amounts to 23,992 square miles according to latest returns, the entire assessed area of 23,256 square miles has been surveyed by fields, at an average cost of £3, 17s. 4d. per field; and 23,101·12 square miles have been surveyed by villages, at a cost of £4, 6s. per village. The total revenue assessed upon the area of 23,256 square miles amounts to £1,448,404, showing an average rate of £62, 5s. 7d. per square mile. This is the estimated land revenue,

according to Settlement returns. The actual demand depends upon many circumstances, which vary year by year. The estates on the revenue roll are divided into three classes—(1) those held under the *tálukdárí* rules described above; (2) those held by ordinary *zamíndárí* tenure; and (3) those held in fee-simple. There are altogether about 400 *tálukdárs* in the Province, of whom about two-thirds, with an area of about 2½ million acres, hold their estates under the rule of primogeniture. The *zamíndárí* estates, locally known by the name of *mufrád*, may be the undivided property of a single owner; but far more commonly they are owned by a coparcenary community, who regard themselves as descendants of a common ancestor. In the latter case, the whole is sometimes shared in common; and sometimes each member of the community looks after his own share only, leaving the common concerns to be managed by a *lambardár*, or head-man, who is responsible to Government for the revenue. The fee-simple estates, which are very few in number, consist of lands sold under the Waste Land Rules. The sub-tenures under these estates may be classified under five headings—(1) sub-settled villages, comprised within *tálukdárí* estates, which have obtained recognition under the Oudh Sub-Settlement Act of 1866; (2) lands held by proprietors who have been unable to prove their right to the sub-settlement of a whole village, called *sír*, *daswant*, *nánkán*, and *dihdárí*; (3) groves held by cultivators, who by immemorial custom give the landlord a certain share of the produce; (4) lands granted, either by sale or as gifts for religious endowment, with full under-proprietary rights; (5) lands held rent-free by village servants and officials.

According to another principle of classification, the total assessed area of the Province (23,256 square miles) is divided as follows with reference to the duration of the Settlement:—(1) Area settled in perpetuity, aggregating 1887 square miles, with an annual revenue of £85,728, or an average of £45, 8s. 7d. from each square mile. The greater portion of this area represents large estates, which were conferred upon loyal *tálukdárs* after the Mutiny at easy rates. (2) Area settled for a term of thirty years, expiring at latest in 1902, aggregating 21,205 square miles, with a revenue of £1,361,711, or £64, 4s. 4d. from each square mile. (3) 40 square miles, with a revenue of £513, settled for ten years. (4) 20 square miles, with a revenue of £452, settled for less than ten years. (5) 104 square miles, still under Settlement in 1877-78.

The following is a brief description of the mode of conducting the Survey and Settlement, two connected operations which have everywhere gone on side by side. Two European officials are required—the Revenue Surveyor and the Settlement Officer—each with a numerous staff of native subordinates. The former measures the area of every

village, and prepares two sets of maps, one on the scale of an inch to the mile, the other on the scale of four inches to the mile. These maps show the superficial marks of cultivated land, waste land, groves, roads, houses, and tanks. The Settlement Officer superintends the *khasra* of field survey, the unit of measurement being the *bígha* of Sháh Jahán, equivalent to 3025 square yards. His special task is to consider the character of the soil, the methods of cultivation, the facility for irrigation, the means of communication in the present and in the probable future, the current rates of rent, the liability to natural calamities, etc. Then he assesses the revenue on each village, the guiding principle being to demand one-half of the gross rental. The registers he compiles include a record of all local rights and customs affecting inheritance, irrigation, fisheries, groves, and the appointment of village officers. These elaborate operations have been now practically concluded for the whole of Oudh.

According to the agricultural statistics for 1876-77, the total assessed area of the Province is 14,885,635 acres, or 23,256 square miles; the total assessment is £1,448,404, at an average rate of 1s. 11¼d. per assessed acre, ranging from 2s. 9¼d. in the District of Bára Bánki to 1s. 1¾d. in Kheri. The total cultivated area is 8,276,175 acres, or 56 per cent. of the assessed area, of which 2,957,398 acres, or 20 per cent. of the grand total, is returned as irrigated entirely by private enterprise. The rate of assessment on cultivated land averages 3s. 6¼d. per acre. The total area of uncultivated land is 6,609,460 acres, or 44 per cent. of the assessed area. This is again divided into 4,033,126 acres, or 26 per cent. of the grand total, returned as grazing land and cultivable, and 2,576,334 acres, or 18 per cent., of uncultivable waste. The average rate of assessment on cultivated and cultivable land together is 2s. 5¾d. per acre.

Commerce and Manufactures.—Under native rule, trade in Oudh was practically non-existent. The only superfluities for export were salt and saltpetre, while the imports were confined to articles of luxury required for the court at Lucknow. It is said that in those days the imports exceeded the exports in value; but this must be accepted, not so much as a literal fact, as a lively indication of the impoverished condition of the people. With the introduction of British authority, though the opulence of Lucknow has declined, countless small centres of traffic have sprung up throughout the country. More especially, the opening of railways has permitted the agricultural wealth of Oudh to find a market even in countries so distant as Europe; while English wares of many kinds are received in exchange. The staple exports at the present day are oil-seeds, wheat, and other food grains; the imports—cotton piéce-goods, cotton twist, and salt. It is impossible to quote any trustworthy figures showing the total value of the trade. Government returns

for the eight years ending 1874 give a total annual average of £1,358,000 for exports, against an average of £1,746,000 for imports. But these figures are based upon no complete system of registration, and it is unlikely that the general balance of trade should be adverse to the Province. Another set of figures, primarily intended to disclose the trade with Bengal, unfortunately omit altogether that large portion of the business which is concentrated at Cawnpore. This city, though lying on the southern bank of the Ganges within the North-Western Provinces, is, in fact, the emporium for the whole trade of Oudh, by rail, road, and river. The enormous exports of wheat from Cawnpore, aggregating 30,000 tons in the year 1877-78, represent to a great extent the surplus harvest of the Oudh cultivator. The same may be said of the exports of oil-seeds from Cawnpore, which in that year reached the yet larger total of 40,000 tons. Turning to the trade of Oudh with Bengal, we find that the total registered exports were valued at £638,000, almost entirely brought by river from the Districts of Faizábád, Bahráich, and Gonda. The chief items were—oil-seeds, £311,000; wheat, £128,000; other food grains, £78,000; sugar, £38,000; indigo, £27,000; and hides, £13,000. The total value of the registered imports was only £69,000, thus showing how absolutely the railway mart of Cawnpore monopolizes the trade in European wares. These imports include—piece-goods, £29,000; twist and yarn, £28,000; and salt, £12,000. In the same year, Cawnpore received from Calcutta by rail piece-goods valued at nearly $1\frac{1}{4}$ million sterling.

A brisk trade is also carried on with the independent State of Nepál, along the three frontier Districts of Kheri, Bahráich, and Gonda. The general policy of the Nepál *darbár* aims at compelling this traffic to be transacted at marts within its own dominions, of which the most flourishing are Golamandi, Bánki or Nepálganj, and Bútwal. At all of these a considerable number of Oudh merchants are permanently settled, whereas Nepálís rarely cross the frontier to trade, except for the purchase of petty necessaries. Duties are levied in Nepál, either by load or by weight, upon all articles both of export and import, at an average rate which approximately corresponds to 7 per cent. *ad valorem.* The right of levying these duties is farmed out to the highest bidder. It is said that they seldom vary, and, being known to all concerned, do not operate as a hindrance to trade or as a means of extortion. The principal exports from Oudh into Nepál are Indian and European piece-goods, salt, sugar, tobacco, spices, and chemicals. The principal imports, which undoubtedly exceed the exports in value, are rice and other food grains, oil-seeds, *ghí*, or clarified butter, metal wares, timber, spices, drugs, and cattle. Statistics of such a trade are notoriously untrustworthy; but it may be mentioned that returns supplied by British officials give £3000 for the annual value of the trade of Kheri

District with Nepál, including both exports and imports; £42,000 for Bahráich, £21,000 for Gonda, and £26,000 as the annual value of piece-goods of Tánda manufacture exported to Bútwal. The registration returns of 1877-78 for the united Provinces of the North-West and Oudh show £352,000 for the total value of exports to Nepál, and £176,000 for the imports, thus fairly indicating the general balance of trade.

No Province of India is more destitute of wholesale manufactures than Oudh. Excepting Lucknow, there is not a single town of the first magnitude; nor are there any industries carried on by European capital, such as the preparation of indigo and tea. Weaving, pottery, and smith's work of a coarse character are carried on in many villages, but not to a sufficient extent to meet the local demand. Almost all manufactured articles of any nicety require to be imported. The only specialities are gold and silver lace-work, silver chasing, and rich embroidery, all confined to Lucknow; and the weaving of a peculiar class of cotton goods, which still flourishes at Tánda.

The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway forms the great trunk of communications. Entering the Province opposite Benares, the main line runs *viâ* Faizábád to Bára Bánki and Lucknow. Thence it passes north-westward through Hardoi to Sháhjahánpur and Bareli, rejoining the great central East Indian System at Alígarh. A branch runs from Lucknow through Unao to Cawnpore; and another diverges at Bára Bánki for Bahramghát on the Gogra. The whole railway thus forms a semicircular connection or loop-line between the East Indian and the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi systems. Metalled roads of excellent construction connect all the principal towns, and much traffic still passes along the great rivers which bound or intersect the Province.

Administration.—The land revenue demand under the government of the late king rose within the last ten years of his rule from £1,399,000 to £2,702,000 a year. In spite of this enormous nominal increase, however, the amount actually realized fell in the same period from £1,318,000 to £1,063,000. Practically speaking, no other taxes of any importance existed. When the British authorities took over the Province, a rough assessment was made reaching a little over £1,000,000. Officers were shortly afterwards appointed to settle the land revenue for thirty years on a more scientific basis; and at the conclusion of their revision, the net amount stood at about £1,500,000. The chief remaining taxes include the excise on spirits, which yielded £73,000 in 1876, and the stamps on securities, etc., which brought in £93,000. Miscellaneous sources of revenue, which do not come under the head of taxation, produce about £65,000 more, the principal items being Government forests, £28,000, and post office, £16,000. The imperial treasury also draws an income from two other sources, which, however, do not appear in the accounts of

this Province. The Oudh peasantry must contribute at least £200,000 annually to the proceeds of the salt tax; while the profit on the Government opium monopoly must amount to £500,000 more. Classifying these receipts under their proper headings, it may be said that actual taxation, including land, salt, excise, and stamps, yields altogether about £1,865,000 annually; while Government monopolies, which involve no drain on the country, make up about £600,000 more. The total cost of civil administration amounts to £565,000, leaving a surplus of £1,900,000, or over 75 per cent. of the gross receipts. Local taxation in rates, cesses, octroi, and ferry dues, yields a further income of £375,000. The administration belongs to the general non-regulation type, under which a single officer unites fiscal and judicial functions. The Province contains 12 Districts, each under a Deputy Commissioner. The Chief Commissionership is now amalgamated with the Governorship of the North-Western Provinces; but the two offices remain distinct, though held by a single person. The High Court, presided over by the Judicial Commissioner, forms the ultimate court of appeal. Each Deputy Commissioner has at his disposal a small staff of European and native assistants. The average population under the control of each officer is little less than a million. In 1877, the total police force numbered 7680 officers and men, being 1 policeman to every 3·22 square miles of area and to every 1560 persons of the population. The total cost of the force was £101,680, of which £13,164 was defrayed from other sources than provincial revenue. In 1877-78, the total number of schools of all kinds was 1423, attended by 64,571 pupils, being 1 school to every 17 square miles, and 5·7 pupils to every thousand of the population. The Muhammadans, who form only 10 per cent. of the population, supply 22 per cent. of the scholars. The total expenditure on education was £51,945, towards which Government contributed £21,659. Lucknow possesses an important college, with a separate establishment for the sons of *tálukdárs*. Almost equally efficacious in disseminating useful information is the private press of Munshi Newal Kishor at Lucknow, which prints a cheap and abundant literature for use throughout all British and Native India. Municipalities have been established at the following towns:—Lucknow, Faizábád (Fyzábád), Tánda, Bahráich, Shahábád, Sandíla, Khairábád, Balrámpur, Rái Bareli, Gonda, Partábgarh, Sítápur, Colonelganj, Biswán, Perkinsganj, Unao, Máhmudábád, Nawábganj (2), Hardoi, Nánpára, Utraula, Lakhimpur, Newalganj-with-Mahárájganj, Bílgrám, Sándi, Mallánwán, and Paháni. In 1877-78, these twenty-eight towns had a total municipal income of £41,571, of which £36,849 was derived from taxation; the average incidence of taxation was 1s. 2½d. per head of population (603,163) within municipal limits. The Province contains 25,842 villages, with an average area of a little less than a square mile each.

Of these, 15,553 are divided among 410 large properties, which pay to Government an average revenue of £500 each. The remaining 10,289 belong to 6950 village communities. Thus, roughly speaking, the old chieftains have retained three-fifths of the Province, while two-fifths have passed into the hands of a class intermediate between the cultivators and the chiefs. The village communities consist of large coparcenary societies, each containing a number of separate proprietors, who either hold their lands in common, dividing the net proceeds after payment of revenue and other charges, or else have divided the soil, and each separately collect their rents and discharge their several dues.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Oudh is less damp than that of Lower Bengal, and has greater varieties of temperature. The year falls naturally into three seasons—the rainy, from the middle of June to the beginning of October; the cold weather, from October to February or March; and the hot season, from March to June. During the five years from 1868 to 1872, the maximum temperature was 118° F. in the shade, and the minimum 39° F. The heat proves most oppressive in the rainy season. The heaviest downpours occur in July and September, but are extremely capricious. The average annual rainfall at Lucknow for the eleven years ending 1874 amounted to 40 inches, with a maximum of 65 inches in 1871 and a minimum of 22 inches in 1866. Government charitable dispensaries have been established in all the chief towns.

Oudh.—Town on the Gogra river, properly Avadh, or AJODHYA (*q.v.*).

Oung-daing.—Revenue circle in the Kyai-let township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2263; gross revenue, £1102.

Oyster Reef.—A dangerous sunken reef off the coast of Arakan, in British Burma. An iron screw-pile lighthouse has been erected here.

P

Paa.—One of the petty States of Und Sarviya, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £255; of which £30 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 24s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Pábar.—River in Bashahr State, Punjab. Thornton states that it rises in Lake Charamai, near the Barendá Pass, and falls at once over a perpendicular crag in a fine waterfall. The source lies in lat. 31° 22′ N., and long. 78° 12′ E., at an elevation of 13,839 feet above sea level. The river flows in a general south-westerly direction, with a very rapid fall, through the most fertile and picturesque part of Bashahr; and finally joins the Tons, in lat. 30° 56′ N., and long. 77° 54′ E., after a total course of about 58 miles.

Pabná (*Pubna*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 49′ and 24° 45′ N. lat., and between 89° 2′ 30″ and 89° 53′ E. long. It forms the south-east corner of the Rájsháhí Kuch Behar Division, and is bordered along its entire east face by the main stream of the Brahmaputra or Jamuná, and along its south-west frontier by the Ganges or Padma. The area was returned in 1875 at 1838 square miles; but according to the Parliamentary Abstract of 1878, it is 1978 square miles; the population, according to the Census of 1872, amounts to 1,211,594 persons. The administrative headquarters are at PABNA TOWN, but SIRAJGANJ is the first place in the District, both in population and commercial importance.

Physical Aspects.—The District lies at the head of the Bengal delta, within the angle formed by the confluence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. It is entirely of alluvial origin, the mud of the annual inundations overlying strata of clay or sand. Apart from the two great bordering rivers, it is intersected by countless water-channels of varying magnitude, so that during the rainy season every village is accessible by boat, and by boat only. Almost the whole area is one green paddy-field, the uniform level being only broken by clumps of bamboos and fruit-trees, which conceal the village sites.

The river system is constituted by the Ganges and Brahmaputra, and the interlacing offshoots and tributaries of these two rivers. The Ganges, locally known as the Padma, skirts part of the west and all the south boundary of the District for a total length of 48 miles. Its chief offshoot is the Ichhámatí, which flows through Pabná town and joins the Haráságar, itself a branch of the Brahmaputra. This latter river, here called the Jamuná, forms the eastern boundary of the District for 32 miles. Its principal branch is the Haráságar, which, in turn, sends off the Baral and the Karatoyá or Phúljhur. There are numerous *jhíls* or marshes, by means of which the surface drainage is carried off in a south-easterly direction into the large rivers. These *jhíls* frequently represent old river beds, within which the main stream of the Ganges and Brahmaputra has formerly flowed. There are no embankments in the District, and artificial canals are not wanted.

History.—Pabná District is a comparatively modern creation of British rule, and possesses no real history of its own. It was first formed in 1832, at a time when the needs of an active administration were beginning to demand recognition. Originally it had formed part of the great District of Rájsháhí, which was the most extensive *zamíndárí* in all Bengal when the Company obtained possession of the Province in the last century. But the hereditary Rájás of Rájsháhí, whose representative still lives in the family palace at Náttor, soon fell into default in the collection of the land revenue from their unwieldy estate, and portion after portion was brought to the hammer for arrears. Thus

it happened that fresh families of landowners sprang up. And when it became necessary, for the speedier administration of criminal and civil justice, that new courts should be opened in corners remote from the original civil station, it was found comparatively easy to erect such new courts into the headquarters of independent revenue divisions. In this way Pabná and Bográ, and also many portions of adjoining Districts, were severed from Rájsháhí. The complete separation, however, was not effected all at once. A Joint Magistrate and Deputy Collector was first stationed at Pabná town in 1832, but this officer remained in some matters subordinate to the Collector of Rájsháhí. Many of the Pabná landowners long retained the privilege, as it was deemed, of paying their revenue into the parent treasury; and hence arose the anomalies of conflicting jurisdictions, which have not entirely disappeared at the present day. It was not until 1859 that the covenanted official in charge of Pabná received the full title of Magistrate and Collector. By 1845, the Subdivision of Sirájganj had been formed, which has since developed into by far the more important half of the District.

Frequent changes have taken place in the limits of the District jurisdiction. In 1862, the large Subdivision of Kushtiá, lying beyond the Ganges, was transferred from Pabná to Nadiyá; and in 1871, by the transfer of two more outlying *thánás* or police circles, that river has been constituted the uniform southern boundary of the District. In the meantime, the magisterial and revenue jurisdictions have been gradually brought into harmony; but, even at the present day, there is scarcely a police circle in Pabná, in which some estates do not pay their land revenue into the treasury of an alien District.

The only event of late years which has disturbed the even current of civil administration in Pabná, is the agrarian riot of 1873. The first quarrel between landlord and tenant arose in the large *parganá* or Fiscal Division of Yusufsháhí, formerly part of the possessions of the Nattor Rájá, but now owned by five families of *zamíndárs*. From the first, the relations of these new-comers, with their *rayats* and with one another, appear to have been unfriendly. They attempted to enhance their rent-rolls, partly by consolidating customary cesses or *ábwábs* with rent, and partly by reducing the standard of the local measuring-pole. These attempts the *rayats* resisted by every means in their power. They refused to pay any rent at all. They contested the claims for enhancement in the courts of law. Finally, they banded themselves together in a league, to oppose, by force if necessary, their landlords' demands. The agrarian combination spread through the District, and in some places led to serious breaches of the peace in July 1873. A strong body of police was marched into the District to quell the disturbances, and 302 persons were arrested, the majority of whom were sentenced

to terms of imprisonment. Since that date order has been preserved. The *rayats*, on the whole, congratulate themselves on having got the best of the contest. The ill-feeling on certain estates has been by no means allayed; but it is hoped that recent legislation will settle this chronic difficulty between landlord and tenant, which is common to Eastern Bengal, and was only marked in Pabná by symptoms of special acuteness.

People.—No early estimates of the population exist sufficiently trustworthy to deserve record. The Census of 1872 ascertained the real number to be 1,211,594 persons, residing in 2792 *mauzás* or villages, and in 198,220 houses. The area of the District was then taken at 1966 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 616; villages per square mile, 1·42; houses per square mile, 101. The average number of persons per village is 434; of persons per house, 6·1. Classified according to sex, there are 602,514 males and 609,080 females; proportion of males, 49·73 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—232,596 males and 193,626 females; total children, 426,222, or 35·2 per cent. of the population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is returned at 211,253, as against 158,665 male adult non-agriculturists. The ethnical division of the people shows—29 Europeans; 3 Armenians; 503 aborigines; 80,446 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 274,589 Hindus subdivided according to caste; 8797 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 847,227 Muhammadans. As in other Districts bordering the lower reaches of the Brahmaputra, there can be no doubt that the great bulk of the population are of aboriginal descent; and that the majority willingly adopted the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining out-castes beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. A few immigrants from the north-west are to be found, either as merchants in Sirájganj, or as stalwart retainers at the offices of the *zamíndárs*. Emigration is unknown to the natives of the District. The aboriginal hill tribes are very poorly represented, even if there be included the 1910 Ghátwáls, placed in the Census Report among the superior Hindu castes, but who are really Bunás from Chutiá Nágpur, occupied in reclaiming the marshy jungles. The greater part of the semi-Hinduized aborigines are Chandáls, who number 50,126. Of the Hindus proper, Bráhmans number 20,801; Rájputs, only 664; Káyasths, 35,359; Sunrís, 29,728; Jaliyás, 26,948. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of Hindus, 361,314, or 29·8 per cent.; Musalmáns, 847,227, or 69·9 per cent. 'Others' number only 3053, of whom 66 are native Christians. The Bráhma Samáj is represented by a few members at Pabná town and Sirájganj, who are almost all strangers from other Districts. The Vaishnavs are returned at 8726. The Muhammadans of Pabná do not appear to separate themselves strongly from their

Hindu neighbours, though doubtless the recent Wahábí or Faráizí revival has exercised some influence upon their religious conduct and mode of life.

The population divides itself into an urban, a rural, and a fluvial section. The townsmen are mostly traders, and many of the wealthier landlords are non-resident. Apart from the growing importance of Sirájganj as a trading centre, no tendency is displayed by the people to gather into towns, but rather the reverse. The three following places are returned in the Census Report of 1872 as each containing more than 5000 inhabitants:—PABNA town, population, 15,730; SIRAJGANJ, 18,873; BELKUCHI, 5128. It is noteworthy that in all these towns the Muhammadan element is in the majority, contrary to the usual experience of Bengal. There is no other place in the District deserving mention.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District. Of the total food supply, the *áman* or late rice, grown on low lands, forms about one-half; the *áus* or early rice, grown on high lands, about one-fifth; and the remainder is furnished by cold-weather second crops, such as wheat, barley, and various pulses. Oil-seeds and the usual vegetables are also cultivated. Indigo is now grown on only about 5000 acres. Of recent years, jute has risen into the second place in the District agriculture. This fibre has been grown for local use from time immemorial; but up to about 1865 little or none had been exported. The European demand, however, at that time so stimulated the cultivators, that, without any direct interference, they had themselves placed as much as 192 square miles under this crop by 1872. Since the latter date the cultivation has somewhat fallen off, but jute still forms the source to which the petty farmer looks to pay his rent. Neither manure nor irrigation is commonly practised or required. The principle of the rotation of crops is acknowledged in the maxim that jute, sugar-cane, betel-leaf, and turmeric can none of them be continuously grown on the same field. It may be broadly stated that there is now no cultivable spare land left in the District. The average produce of an acre of land, yielding two crops, is estimated to be about 21 cwts., worth about £3, 7s. The rates of rent in Pabná vary extremely on different estates. The average rate for rice lands may be said to lie between 3s. and 6s. per acre, but some landlords obtain as much as 12s. A general attempt at enhancement led to the disturbances which have been already described. There is little that is peculiar in the land tenures of the District. All the present landowners are supposed to owe their title to sales from the Rájá of Nattor, which have taken place since the introduction of British rule. The number of permanent under-tenures of the *patní* class is comparatively small. It is supposed that about half the cultivators have won for themselves occupancy rights, by the continuous

cultivation of their fields for more than twelve years; but this supposition would be strenuously contested by the landlords.

The ordinary rates of wages have approximately doubled within the past thirty years. Since 1840, the wages of a common coolie have risen from 2¼d. to 4½d. per diem; of an agricultural labourer, from 2¼d. to 3⅜d.; of a carpenter or smith, from 4½d. to 1s. The wages paid at Sirájganj are considerably higher than the rates current in other parts of the District, especially for women and children, who are largely employed in the jute factory. For unskilled labour at that busy mart, men sometimes receive 16s. a month, women 7s. 6d., and children 5s. The prices of food grains appear to have risen in a yet greater degree than wages. Common rice, which sold in 1850 for 1s. 8½d. per cwt., fetched 3s. 9d. per cwt. in 1870; during the same period of 20 years, barley rose from 1s. 8½d. to 4s. 9d., and wheat from 2s. 4½d. to 6s. 10d. The highest price reached by common rice in years of scarcity was 10s. 6½d. per cwt. in 1866, and 9s. 1d. in 1874.

Pabná is not specially liable to either of the calamities of flood or drought, and the means of water communication are sufficiently ample to prevent a local scarcity from intensifying into famine. The natural rising of the rivers lays a great portion of the country under water every year, and no irrigation works are needed. In 1874, the deficiency in the local rainfall was such as to render necessary relief operations on the part of Government; and about £11,000 was expended on this account. If the price of rice were to rise in January to 10s. 10d. per cwt., it should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Manufactures, etc.—At Máchimpur, near Sirájganj, there is a large factory for gunny-weaving, maintained by European capital, which gives employment to about 1200 men, women, and children. The total value of gunny bags exported from the District in 1876-77 is returned at £70,000. The cultivation and manufacture of indigo are on the decline, the total annual out-turn of this dye being now only about 300 cwts. The weaving industry, also, is no longer prosperous. A coarse paper is manufactured in certain villages of the Sirájganj Subdivision from *meshtá* (Hibiscus cannabinus). Mats and baskets are commonly woven from reeds, canes, and bamboos; and there is some export of these articles to other Districts.

Pabná District is most favourably situated for river traffic. SIRAJGANJ is, perhaps, the most frequented mart in all Bengal, both for steamers and native boats. Its trade is mostly of a through character, the agricultural produce of all the neighbouring Districts being here exchanged for piece-goods, salt, and European wares. But, apart from Sirájganj, there are numerous minor marts which export their jute and rice direct to Goálanda and even to Calcutta. There is no article of Indian trade which does not figure in the Sirájganj returns on both sides of the

account, but the chief exports proper are jute, rice, pulses, oil-seeds, hay and straw, hides and gunnies; the imports comprise European cotton manufactures, salt, tobacco, betel-nuts, spices, cocoa-nuts, lime and limestone, iron, and coal. It is calculated that coin to the amount of at least £400,000 is annually imported, in order to liquidate the favourable balance of trade. The registration returns for 1876-77 give a total value of exports amounting to £2,205,277, of which £1,722,502 was carried by country boats, £182,548 by private steamers, and £300,226 by railway steamers. The total imports were valued at £2,324,590, of which £1,912,014 was carried by country boats, £1505 by private steamers, and £411,071 by railway steamers. These figures include the trade of Sirájganj, which will be shown in detail in a separate article, as well as a large amount of commodities ranked both as exports and imports. The net export of jute, the produce of Pabná District, is given at 1,081,700 *maunds*, being the fourth largest supply of any District in Bengal. Similarly, the net export of food grains is nearly 500,000 *maunds*, and of oil-seeds, 249,000 *maunds*. Apart from Sirájganj, the chief marts are—Berá, which exported jute, food grains, and oil-seeds, valued at £67,270, and imported £13,630 of piece-goods and 50,000 *maunds* of salt; Ulápára, exports £59,090, imports £11,420; Dhapára, exports £11,180, imports £42,360; Pabná town, exports £10,110, imports £21,330; Pangási, exports £50,840.

The new Bengal State Railway runs across the south-western corner of Pabná District for about 5 miles. The roads in the District are few and bad, the communication even between Pabná town and Sirájganj being interrupted by a marshy tract, 31 miles across. But this deficiency is amply compensated by the facility of water communication; 126 miles of river are returned as navigable throughout the year (exclusive of the great skirting rivers), and 68 miles as navigable for a portion of the year. About £2000 is annually expended on the maintenance and construction of roads. There is a small water-course, artificially deepened to serve as a canal, in the neighbourhood of Sirájganj.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Pabná District amounted to £53,855, towards which the land tax contributed £32,082, or 60 per cent.; the net expenditure was £22,717, or about two-fifths of the revenue. In the same year, there were 4 covenanted officials stationed in the District, and 12 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes, the District is divided into 8 *thánás* or police circles, with 13 outposts. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 320 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £7607. In addition, there was a municipal police of 95 men, and a rural police or village watch of 2803 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 3218 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 0·61 square mile of the area and to every

376 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £15,876, averaging £8, 1s. 6d. per square mile and 3⅛d. per head of population. In that year, the total number of persons in Pabná District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1500, being 1 person to every 807 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail and one lock-up. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 131, of whom 2 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 93. These figures show 1 prisoner to every 9222 of the population. The total cost amounted to £735, or £5, 12s. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £47, 18s. 3d., or £1, 6s. for each manufacturing prisoner. The prison death-rate was 33 per thousand.

Education has widely spread of recent years, chiefly owing to the reforms of Sir G. Campbell, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended to the *páthsálás* or village schools. In 1856, there were only 5 schools in the District, attended by 508 pupils; by 1872, these numbers had grown to 247 schools, and 8833 pupils. In the latter year, the total expenditure on education was £4215, towards which Government contributed £2228. By 1876, the schools had further increased to 285, and the pupils to 9665, showing 1 school to every 6·9 square miles, and 8 pupils to every thousand of the population.

The District is divided into 2 Administrative Subdivisions, and 8 police circles. There are 38 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions, with an aggregate of 876 revenue-paying estates. In 1876, there were 2 civil judges and 7 stipendiary magistrates; the maximum distance of any village from the nearest court was 32 miles, the average distance 8 miles. According to the Census Report of 1872, there are 2 municipalities in the District, Pabná town and Sirájganj, with a total population of 34,603; the gross municipal income is returned at £1249, the average rate of taxation being about 8½d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Pabná is mild, and not unhealthy as compared with the neighbouring Districts. The average annual rainfall is returned at 69·20 inches for Pabná town, and 58·22 inches for Sirájganj. The mean temperature at Pabná for the year 1873 was 79·81° F. The estuary of the Meghna is sufficiently near to expose the District to the danger of occasional cyclones. In September 1872, a storm of unusual violence swept over the country, which levelled native houses and fruit-trees in all directions, sunk more than 100 country boats at Sirájganj, and wrecked several large steamers and flats.

The chief diseases are malarious fevers of a mild type, splenitis, and slight attacks of dysentery and diarrhœa. Cholera usually breaks out every year in a more or less severe form. The vital statistics for

selected areas show a death-rate during 1875 of 28·89 per thousand in the rural area, and 38·46 in the urban area, which is conterminous with Pabná town. There were, in 1872, three charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 329 in-door and 6180 out-door patients were treated during the year; the total income was £573, towards which Government contributed £237.

Pabná. — *Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Pabná District, Bengal, lying between 23° 49′ and 24° 20′ N. lat., and between 89° 3′ and 89° 47′ E. long. Area, 935 square miles; villages, 1300; houses, 97,350; pop. (1872), 555,019, of whom 185,826 were Hindus, 368,949 Muhammadans, 43 Christians, and 201 of other denominations; proportion of males to total population, 49·5 per cent. Average number of persons per square mile, 594; villages per square mile, 1·39; houses per square mile, 104; persons per village, 427; inmates per house, 5·7. This Subdivision consists of the 4 police circles of Pabná, Dulái, Mathurá, and Chátmahar. In 1869, it contained 11 magisterial and revenue courts, and a total police force of 314 men, with a village watch numbering 1222; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £10,441.

Pabná.—Administrative headquarters and second town of Pabná District, Bengal; situated on both banks of the Ichhámatí, in lat. 24° 0′ 30″ N., and long. 89° 17′ 25″ E. Pop. (1872), 15,730. The Ichhámatí flows through the centre of the town; the old bed of the Ganges or Padma lies to the south. Chief buildings—the Government offices, circuit-house, police station, dispensary, the Government English school, and Mánjhipára Indigo Factory; 5 large *bázárs*. Several good metalled roads. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £575.

Pachamália (‘*Green Mountains*’).—Mountain range in Trichinopoli and Salem Districts, Madras, lying between 11° 10′ and 11° 24′ N. lat., and between 78° 33′ 30″ and 78° 50′ E. long. Average height above sea level, 2500 feet; length of range, about 20 miles. On the Salem side, the hills are higher and more precipitous than towards the east, where the ascent is gradual and relieved by long spurs trending into the plains. The forests are poor, and at present of no economic value, having been much injured by the wasteful *júm* cultivation. The scrub and bamboo wilds that remain are notoriously feverish.

Pachambá. — Subdivision of Hazáribágh District, Bengal. Area, 1824 square miles; villages, 2455; houses, 40,645. Pop. (1872), 224,099, of whom 183,013, or 81·7 per cent., were Hindus; 21,963, or 9·8 per cent., Muhammadans; 21 Christians; and 19,102, or 8·5 per cent., of other religions; proportion of males to total population, 51·7 per cent. Average number of persons per square mile, 123; villages per square mile, 1·35; persons per village, 91; houses per square mile, 22; persons per house, 5·5. This Subdivision consists of the 3

police circles of Pachambá, Kharakdihá, and Gáwan. In 1870-71, it contained 2 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 44, and a village watch of 431 men; the total cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £1969.

Pachambá.—Town in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 12′ 29″ N., and long. 86° 18′ 38″ E., 3 miles from Girídi railway station. Headquarters of the Free Church of Scotland Mission to the Santáls; dispensary and training school for teachers are attached to the Mission. The staff numbers 21 persons, 3 of whom are Europeans; the funds are drawn mainly from subscriptions in Scotland, aided by surplus receipts of the Free Church of Scotland's Institution in Calcutta.

Pachegam.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 3 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £3700; tribute of £212 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £68 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Pachhimráth.—*Parganá* in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Haweli Oudh, on the east by Majhaura, on the south by Sultánpur Baraunsi in Sultánpur District, and on the west by Rudauli in Bára Bánki. Intersected by two small streams, the Madha and Bisoi, which, after passing into Majhaura *parganá*, unite and form the Tons. Under native rule, the *parganá* comprised a much larger area than at present, consisting of 856 villages. Numerous transfers have lately been made to neighbouring *parganás*, and Pachhimráth now contains an area of 350 square miles, of which 197 are cultivated; number of villages, 502. Population of present area, according to Census of 1869, 211,294, viz. 201,588 Hindus and 9706 Muhammadans. Formerly inhabited by Bhars, but now owned principally by Rájputs.

Pachhoha.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sháhjahánpur District, on the east by Sháhábád *parganá*, on the south by Páli, and on the west by Farrukhábád and Sháhjahánpur Districts. Watered by two small streams, the Garra and Sunsáha Chanáb. Soil chiefly sandy (*bhúr*). Area, about 88 square miles, or 56,280 acres, of which 42,361 acres are returned as cultivated, 10,275 as cultivable, and 3644 as uncultivable waste. Pop. (1869), 30,420, nearly all Hindus. The landholders are chiefly Panwárs. During native rule, Pachhoha was included within Páli, and was only constituted a separate *parganá* after the British annexation.

Páchipeta.—*Ghát* in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* PANCHIPENTA.

Pachmarhí.—Chiefship in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; comprising 24 villages, in the heart of the Mahádeo Hills. The chief has arranged for the fine *sál* timber being preserved by the Government Forest Department. He is a Kurkú by caste, and the principal

of the Bhopás, or hereditary guardians of the temple on the Mahádeo Hills, in which capacity he receives yearly £75 in lieu of pilgrim tax, less a quit-rent on his estate of £2, 10s.

Pachmarhí.—Plateau in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; surrounded by the Chaurádeo Játa Pahár and Dhúpgarh Hills. It lies 2500 feet above Sohágpur, with an average temperature nearly 10° F. lower than in the valley; and, though not free from fever, affords an agreeable sanatorium and summer retreat for the Central Provinces. Pachmarhí has some interesting ancient temples.

Pachrúkhá.—Village in Champáran District, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 41′ 30″ N., and long. 84° 53′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 5590.

Pa-dan.—Revenue circle in the Hmaw-bhí township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A wide cultivated plain, intersected by numerous tidal creeks. Pop. (1877-78), 3525; revenue, £2929.

Padda (*Padma*). — The name of the main stream of the Ganges during the lower part of its course.—*See* GANGES.

Pa-de.—Stream rising in the western slopes of the Pegu Yoma range in British Burma. After a westerly course for some distance, it enters Thayet District, where it takes the name of the Bhwot-lay, and falls into the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) from the eastwards. The volume of water poured into the Irawadi during the rains is considerable; but this channel is useless for navigation purposes on account of the force of the current, and the rapidity with which the water rises and falls. Near its mouth, it is spanned by a substantial wooden bridge, which carries the main road between Rangoon and Mye-dai. During the rains, large quantities of teak are floated down to the mouth of the Bhwot-lay, where the timber is collected into rafts for the Rangoon market.

Pa-deng.—Revenue circle in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Chief products—rice and sesamum. Pop. (1877), 2804; gross revenue, £654.

Pádinálknád.—*Táluk* or Subdivision in Coorg. Area, 472 square miles; number of villages, 56; number of houses, 3315; pop. (1871), 32,350, of whom 23,095 were Hindus, 5906 native Coorgs, 3225 Muhammadans, 15 Jains, 108 Christians, and 1 other. Pádinálknád occupies the eastern portion of Coorg, and includes the highest peaks of the Western Gháts. It is rich in jungle produce, chiefly cardamoms and *pún* timber, and contains many coffee plantations.

Padma (*Padda*).—The name of the main stream of the Ganges, during the lower portion of its course past Pabná District to GOALANDO.

Padmanábham.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras; situated in lat. 17° 58′ N., and long. 83° 19′ E., near the port of Bimlipatam. Pop. (1871), 558; number of houses, 137. A place of religious and his-

toric interest, containing a large endowed Hindu temple of much local celebrity, and marking the scene of a decisive battle—'the Flodden of the Northern Circars'—fought between Viziarám Ráj of Vizianágaram and Col. Prendergast's force, on the 10th June 1794. Viziarám Ráj was defeated and slain, and with him fell most of the principal chiefs of the country.

Padmávatí (*Padmábatí*).—Town in Khandpára Tributary State, Orissa, Bengal; situated on the Mahánadi river, in lat. 20° 20′ 45″ N., and long. 85° 21′ E. Large river traffic; exports of salt, spices, cocoa-nuts, and brass utensils to Sambalpur in the Central Provinces, and return trade in cotton, wheat, oil-seeds, *ghí*, oil, molasses, iron, *tasar* silk, etc.

Pa-doung.—Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma, occupying the whole of the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) from Thayet on the north to Henzada on the south, and stretching westward to the Arakan Yoma range. Area, 1188 square miles; pop. (1877), 35,269; revenue, £8667. Along the bank of the Irawadi, for about a mile inland, the country is level, and under rice; west of this it begins to undulate, but the undulations soon pass into hills, and the whole west of the township to the Arakan Yomas is a succession of densely wooded spurs and mountain torrents. *Eng* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), *pyeng-ga-do* (Xylia dolabriformis), *sha* (Acacia catechu), and teak (Tectona grandis), besides bamboos, abound in this tract. Cutch trees are very numerous, and a brisk manufacture of this article has sprung up. The principal rivers are—the Tha-ní, with its tributaries the Bhú-ro and Kyouk-bhú; the Thú-le-dan; and the Kha-wa. The mineral products of Pa-doung are earth-oil and limestone. In the southern portion of the township are some salt springs, of no economic value at present, owing to the importation of foreign salt. The number of revenue circles is 24. The area under cultivation may be put roughly at 45 square miles, of which about eight-ninths are under rice, and the remainder under miscellaneous crops, such as chillies, fruit, onions, sesamum, and tobacco. These are exchanged for cotton, piece-goods, and *nga-pí* or fish paste. The chief road is that leading from Prome into Arakan *viâ* the Toung-gúp Pass. The principal town is PA-DOUNG.

Pa-doung.—Headquarters town of Pa-doung township in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 41′ N., and long. 95° 10′ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1877-78), 2897. Daily communication with Prome by a ferry-boat. It consists of one long street, which forms a portion of the military road from Prome into Arakan. Contains a court-house, police station, market, and school. Pa-doung is occasionally mentioned in Burmese history. About the end of the first century of the Christian era, Tha-

peng-gnyú, the last king of Old Prome, fled thither after the destruction of his capital, Tha-re-khettra, by the Kan-ran tribe. In both the first and second Anglo-Burmese wars, Pa-doung was the scene of fighting.

Pádra.—Town in Baroda State, Bombay; situated 8 miles west-south-west from the city of Baroda, in lat. 22° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 7′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 7985.

Padráuna (*Paráuna*).—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level plain, lying along the south bank of the river Gandak. Area, 1067 square miles, of which 736 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 533,075; land revenue, £48,022; total Government revenue, £52,784; rental paid by cultivators, £111,011; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 4⅞d.

Padráuna.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 26° 54′ 20″ N., long. 84° 1′ 25″ E.; pop. (1872), 5092. Distance from Gorakhpur town, 40 miles east. General Cunningham identifies Padráuna with Páwá, mentioned in the Chinese chronicles as the last halting-place of Sakya Muni or Buddha before reaching Kusinagara, where he died, and which received an eighth share of his relics. The village contains a large mound covered with broken bricks, from which several statues of Buddha have been excavated.

Pagára.—Chiefship in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, lying among the Mahádeo Hills. It originally comprised 10 villages, to which 4 more were added in 1820 from an estate in Pratápgarh. The chief is one of the Bhopás or hereditary guardians of the temple on the Mahádeo Hills.

Páglá (or *Páglí*).—River in Maldah District, Bengal. An offshoot of the Ganges on its left bank, into which the Chhotá Bhágirathi, a smaller branch, flows, and which, before it regains the Ganges, encloses a large island about 16 miles long. During the rainy season, the Páglá is navigable for boats of considerable size; its floods deposit sand only.

Pa-gút-toung.—Revenue circle in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2526; gross revenue, £1509.

Pahárapur.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north and east by Gonda *parganá*, on the south by Guwárich, and on the west by Hisámpur *parganá* in Bahráich District. Area, 115 square miles, of which 73 are cultivated. A level *parganá*, watered by the Tirhi river, which intersects it from west to east, and occasionally causes damage to the neighbouring villages by inundation. A variety of long-stemmed rice, known as *dunsí dhán*, is peculiar to this *parganá*, which grows as the floods rise in the rainy season, and is never submerged. Population, according to the Census of 1869, 74,139, viz. 68,226 Hindus and 5913 Muhammadans. Total Government revenue £9361. The *parganá* is chiefly owned by the Rájás of Kapurthála

and Chánda. The Bisambharpur estate belongs to the heirs of the late Mahárájá Sir Mán Sinh, K.C.S.I. Of the 128 villages comprising the *parganá*, 83 are held by Bráhmans.

Pahári Bánka.—One of the petty *jágírs* in Bundelkhand known as the *Hasht Bhaya Jágírs*, or 'appanages of the eight brothers.' It is under the political superintendence of the Central India Agency and the Government of India, and lies to the south of Jhánsi District. Area, about 4 square miles; estimated pop. (1874), 1800; estimated revenue, £500. The *jágír* contains the single village of Pahári Kalan, and is an offshoot from the Barágáon *jágír*, which Diwán Rái Sinh of Orchhá divided among his eight sons. The present holder is named Diwán Bánka Piyárija Bahádur. He has the right of adoption.

Pahár Sirgirá.—Old Gond Chiefship, now attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 15 miles west of Sambalpur town. Consists of 6 villages; area, 40 square miles, about three-fifths of which are cultivated, producing rice and sugar-cane. The chiefs of Pahár Sirgirá, Bhedan, and Pátholandá all trace their origin to a family which came from Mandla seven centuries ago. The principal village, Pahár Sirgirá (lat. 21° 27′ N., long. 83° 48′ E.) has a well-attended school.

Pahásu.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the right bank of the Káli river, 24 miles south of Bulandshahr town. Pop. (1872), 4204, chiefly Rájputs and Musalmáns. Capital of Pratáp Sinh, one of the earliest Badgújar immigrants into the Doáb. Headquarters of a *mahál* under Akbar. Conferred, with a *parganá* of 54 villages, by the Emperor Sháh Alam on Begam Samru as a *jágír* for the support of her troops. On her death in 1836, it was held for a time by Government, and then granted to Murád Alí Khán. Present proprietors, Nawáb Fáiz Alí Khán, C.S.I., prime minister of Jáipur (Jeypore) State, and Imdád Alí Khán. Police station, post office, village school.

Pahlanpur.—Collection of States, State, and town, Bombay.—*See* PALANPUR.

Pahra.—Petty State in Bundelkhand under the political superintendence of the Central India Agency and the Government of India; one of the Kálinjar Chaubes, that is, one of the shares in the district of Kálinjar belonging to a member of the Chaube family. The lands belonging to the family were partitioned in 1812. The area of Pahra is 10 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 4000; estimated revenue, £1300. The present chief is named Chaube Rádha Charan.

Pai-beng.—Creek in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It unites the DA-GA and BASSEIN rivers, and can be navigated in all seasons for about 18 miles, as far as the village of Re-dweng-gún. During the dry weather, this channel is tidal for about 30 miles from the Bassein mouth, and the water is then brackish; in the rains it is sweet.

Pai-beng.—Revenue circle in the Thí-kweng township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 56 square miles; pop. (1877), 4673; revenue, £1919. A flat and fairly well cultivated tract, with a belt of forest land forming its northern boundary.

Pai-beng-yeng.—Revenue circle in the Mro-houng township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2099; gross revenue, £2020.

Pai-gú.—Division, township, revenue circle, town, and river in British Burma.—*See* PEGU.

Paik-thoung.—Revenue circle in the Thí-kweng township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 91 square miles; pop. (1877), 7427; gross revenue, £3299. A level tract cut up by numerous small and unimportant creeks into detached plots. Chief product, rice.

Páila.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh. This *parganá* formerly contained an area of 51 square miles, but has recently been enlarged by the inclusion of the neighbouring *parganá* of Karanpur. Present area, 103 square miles, of which 58 are cultivated; pop. (according to the Census of 1869), 35,349, viz. 32,056 Hindus and 3293 Muhammadans; number of villages, 117.

Pai-myouk.—Revenue circle in the Meng-dún township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma; consists for the most part of uncultivable hills. Pop. (1877), 2708; gross revenue, £361.

Painam.—Village in Dacca District, Bengal.—*See* SONARGAON.

Páindá.—Offshoot of the Surmá river, in the east of Sylhet District, Assam; navigable for boats of 4 tons burthen throughout the year.

Paingangá.—River of Berar.—*See* PENGANGA.

Paing-kwon.—Revenue circle in the Than-lweng Hlaing-bhwai township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2432; land revenue, £106, and capitation tax, £229.

Paing-kyún.—Revenue circle in the Pegu township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 5113; revenue, £3505. A tract extending from the Pegu river to the Tsit-toung, and annually inundated in its eastern portion.

Paing-kyún (*Paing-kyoon*).—Creek uniting the Pegu and Tsit-toung rivers of British Burma. Formerly very tortuous, and about 33 miles long, it has been generally deepened, and various cuttings made, so that its length has been reduced to 18 miles. Before the new canal to Myit-kyo was opened, the Paing-kyún formed a portion of the main route from Rangoon to Toung-ngú.

Paintepur.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated about 3 miles west of the high road from Bahramghát to Sítápur. Lat. 27° 16′ 40″ N., long. 81° 13′ 20″ E. Said to have been founded about 300 years ago by one Paint Pál, an Ahban chief of Maholi, and to have

been named after him. Pop. (1869), 5127, the proportion of Hindus to Musalmáns being as 7 to 1. A flourishing town, with a large community of bankers and merchants. Market twice a week; Government school.

Pákaur.—Subdivision of the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal. With Rájmahál, it forms one of the Sub-Districts of the Santál Parganás. Total area, 1343 square miles; number of villages, 1048; houses, 28,169; pop. (1872), 141,304; average number of persons per village, 135; persons per house, 5.

Pak-chan.—River in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Rising in the main watershed of the Province, in lat. 10° 48′ 14″ N., and long. 98° 55′ 40″ E., it is for the first 15 miles of its course a mountain torrent, with a rocky bed. Lower down, it is joined by several affluents, and widens to about 100 feet, being navigable up to this portion of its course by small boats from July to December. For about 30 miles, as far as the Siamese village of Kra, the general direction of the river is south-west; after this, it becomes exceedingly tortuous. The other principal tributaries are the Ma-lí-won, the Khya-ún, and the May-nam-naw-ey. The Pak-chan falls into the Bay of Bengal at Victoria Point; its total length is 78 miles. The territory on the right bank is called Ma-lí-won, and belongs to the British. On the left are the Siamese Provinces of Kra and Re-noung, which are considered valuable for their lead and tin mines. At Kra, the stream is 250 feet broad; it gradually increases in width towards its mouth, where the distance from shore to shore is 2½ miles. Tidal influence is felt in the dry season for 10 miles above Kra, at which place the rise at spring-tides is 8 feet. Immediately opposite the village, an island has been formed, which is acknowledged as British territory. Colonel Fytche, in the rainy season of 1864, succeeded in reaching Kra in H.M.S. *Nemesis*, to meet the Siamese chiefs, and settle our southern boundary.

Pákpattan.—Southern *tahsíl* of Montgomery District, Punjab, lying between 29° 58′ and 30° 44′ N. lat., and between 72° 39′ and 73° 40′ E. long., and consisting of a barren tract along the bank of the river Sutlej (Satlaj). Pop. (1868), 57,732.

Pákpattan.—Ancient town in Montgomery District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Pop. (1868), 6086, consisting of 2139 Hindus, 3762 Muhammadans, and 185 Síkhs. Situated in lat. 30° 20′ 40″ N., and long. 73° 25′ 50″ E., on the old high bank of the river Sutlej (Satlaj), 10 miles from its present course, and 30 miles south of Montgomery town. Anciently known as Ajudhan. Identified by General Cunningham with one of the towns belonging to the Sudrakæ or Oxudrakæ of Alexander's historians; important at a later date as the chief ferry over the Sutlej. Meeting-place of the two great western roads from Derá Ghází Khán and Derá Ismáil Khán. The conquerors, Mahmúd

and Timur, and the traveller Ibn Batuta, crossed the river at this point. The modern name of Pákpattan ('Ferry of the Pure') is derived from the saint Faríd-ud-dín, one of the most famous devotees of Northern India, who was instrumental in the conversion of the whole Southern Punjab to the faith of Islám. Pilgrims from all parts of India, and even from Afghánistán and Central Asia, flock to this shrine; and during the great festival of the *Muharram*, as many as 60,000 persons have been estimated as present. On the afternoon and night of the last day the characteristic ceremony of the festival takes place. A well adjoining the shrine is pierced by a narrow opening, known as 'the Gate of Paradise;' and whoever can force his way through this aperture during the prescribed hours is assured of a free entrance into heaven. The crush is naturally excessive, and often results in severe injuries to the faithful. The lineal descendants of the saint enjoy the revenues of the shrine, and possess a high reputation for sanctity. The town is picturesquely situated on a slight elevation overlooking the plain, but disappoints the visitor's expectations upon closer acquaintance. Trade with Múltán, Montgomery, and Fázilka; manufacture of lacquer ornaments and coarse silk. *Tahsíli*, police station, distillery, post office, town school, girls' school, and *sarái.* Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £248, or 11¼d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Pal.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Mahi Kánta, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay. It is situated on the north-eastern frontier of Mahi Kánta, and its boundary marches with that of Mewár in Rájputána. Pop. (1872), 4919. The tract is wild and mountainous. Chief agricultural products—millets, wheat, and Indian corn. The family is descended from Jái Chánd, the last Rahtor sovereign of Kanauj. Jái Chánd left two sons, Seojí and Sonakjí. The former founded the present family of Márwár; the second established himself at Edar in 1257. For twenty-six generations, the chiefs of this line bore the title of Ráos of Edar, but the last prince, Jagannáth, was driven out by the Muhammadans in 1656. The family retired into the hills, fixed their headquarters at Pal, and were known thenceforward as the Ráos of that mountainous tract. The Ráos of Pal pay no tribute, the difficult nature of their territory having apparently saved them from the exactions of the Gáekwár. The present (1876-77) chief, Ráo Hamir Sinh, is thirty years of age, and manages the State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £2500. The family follows the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession.

Pal.—One of the petty States in Hallár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 5 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue (1876), £1000; tribute of £125 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £39 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Pa-la.—Revenue circle in the Pa-law township of Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2846; gross revenue, £499.

Pálakollu (*Palkole*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras; situated in lat. 16° 31′ N., and long. 81° 46′ 6″ E., 5 miles north of Narsapur. Pop. (1871), 5931; number of houses, 1143. Pálakollu was the first settlement of the Dutch on this part of the coast. They opened a factory here in 1652, and for a long time it was their headquarters. In the churchyard, Dutch inscriptions as old as 1662 are still legible. The Dutch founded indigo factories, ironworks, and extensive weaving industries, and planted large orange and shaddock gardens. The place fell to the English by the treaty of Versailles in 1783, but the Dutch remained in possession, paying a small quit-rent till 1804. Pálakollu is the seat of a Protestant mission.

Pálakonda (*Palkonda, Palcondah*).—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras; situated in lat. 18° 36′ N., and long. 83° 48′ E., on the Languliyá river, near the Ganjám frontier, and connected with the coast and Parvatipur by good roads. Pop. (1871), 8694. Has a sub-magistrate's court, post office, and good school, and was until 1872 a municipality. Pálakonda was formerly the capital of an ancient *zamíndárí*, granted by the Rájá of Jáipur early in the 16th century. When the East India Company came into possession, the Pálakonda family were tributary to Vizianágaram. In 1796, the Ráj was taken from the *zamíndár* for rebellion, and given to his son. Each succeeding *zamíndár* gave the Company trouble, till in 1828 the Collector had to take charge for a time. The new *zamíndár* in 1832 broke out into open rebellion, which led to the forfeiture of the estate, and the prolonged imprisonment of the male members of the family. For some years after this the *zamíndárí* was managed by the Collector; but from 1846 till the present time it has been rented to Messrs. Arbuthnot & Co. of Madras, who pay £13,100 to Government, and are said to receive £15,800 per annum, the difference being nearly all spent in irrigation works and administration. The people have thriven greatly, and cultivation is annually extending. Indigo, sugar, cotton, and grains are (1876-77) grown on 25,000 acres out of a total of 48,500.

Pálamainer (*Pulmanair*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras. —*See* PALMANER.

Palámau.—Subdivision of Lohárdagá District, Bengal. Area, 4260 square miles; villages, 2667; houses, 68,719; pop. (1872), 366,519, of whom 318,472, or 86·9 per cent., were Hindus; 32,116, or 8·8 per cent., Muhammadans; 2 Christians; and 15,929, or 4·3 per cent., of other religions. Proportion of males in total population, 50·4 per cent. Average number of persons per square mile, 86; villages per square mile, 0·62; persons per village, 137; houses per square mile, 16; per-

sons per house, 5·3. This Subdivision consists of the 8 police circles of Bareswar, Chhattarpur, Daltonganj, Garwá, Manká, Majhíwán, Patun, and Rámkunda. In 1870-71, it contained 7 magisterial courts, a regular police force of 148 men, and a village watch of 154; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £5770.

Pálámkottá (*Palamcottah, Páláyam-kottai*).—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras; headquarters of the Collector, and a municipal town, with church, jail, railway station, courts, telegraph and post offices; situated in lat. 8° 42′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 46′ 40″ E., 3½ miles east of Tinnevelli, and 1 mile from the Támrapurni river. Pop. (1871), 17,885; number of houses, 3620. The fort is now dismantled, and the garrison reduced to 1 regiment of Sepoys. Pálámkottá is considered healthy. The municipality spends £1700 per annum on improvements, raising taxes at the rate of 4½d. per head. The South Indian Railway opened a station here in 1874.

Pálampur. — Town in Kángra District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 7′ N., and long. 76° 35′ E., on the outer slope of the Dháola Dhar. Important as the centre of the rising tea plantations of the Pálam valley. Government established a fair here in 1868, for the purpose of encouraging trade with Central Asia; it is frequented by large numbers, especially by Yarkandís.

Palani (*Pulney*).—Town and Hills in Madura District, Madras.—*See* PALNI.

Pálanpur Agency, The.—A collection of Native States in the Bombay Presidency, under the political superintendence of the Bombay Government. There are eleven States under the control of the Political Superintendent of Pálanpur, viz.: PALANPUR, RADHANPUR, THARAD, WAO, WARAI, TERWARA, SUIGAON, DEODAR, SANTALPUR, KANKREJ, BHABAR. Of these, four (Pálanpur, Rádhanpur, Waráí, and Terwára) are Muhammadan; the others are Hindu, and five of their ruling families are Rájput.

Pálanpur. — Native State within the British Political Agency of Pálanpur, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 23° 57′ and 24° 41′ N. lat., and between 71° 51′ and 72° 45′ E. long. Area, 2384 square miles; number of villages, 443; pop. (1872), 215,972. Bounded on the north by the Subdivision of Márwár and Sirohi; on the east by Sirohi and Dánta State, the Aravalli range forming the boundary; on the south by Baroda; and on the west by other States under the Pálanpur Agency. The southern and eastern portions are undulating and tolerably well covered with trees. Towards the north the country becomes mountainous, with much forest; the villages are far apart and generally poor and small, the hills afford excellent pasture, and the woods contain many useful timber-trees. In the north-west, bordering on Márwár and Tharád, the country is a level plain, with a

poor and sandy soil, generally producing but one crop during the year; in the southern and eastern portions, on the contrary, it is a rich black loam, yielding three crops annually. For the first crops, slight rain is sufficient, but for the two latter, heavy rain is required, when the yield is very abundant. The State is watered by the Banás river, which flows through its whole length. The Saraswati also crosses a part of the eastern tracts. The climate is dry and hot, and fever is prevalent. The principal products are wheat, rice and other grains, and sugar-cane. The high road from Ahmedábád to Páli in Márwár, and also the road from Ahmedábád to Nasirábád, Ajmír, Delhi, and Agra *viâ* Dísa (Deesa), pass through the State. Considerable trade is carried on with Páli, Dholera, Ahmedábád, and Rádhanpur. The Pálanpur family is of Afghán origin, belonging to the Loháni tribe, and is said to have occupied Behar in the reign of the Mughal Emperor Humáyun. From Akbar, in 1597, Ghazní Khán, the chief, obtained the title of Diwán for having successfully repulsed an invasion of the Afghán tribes. For his services on this occasion, he was also rewarded with the government of Lahore. The chief who ruled in 1682 received the Province of Jhálod, Sáchor, Pálanpur, and Dísa (Deesa) from the Emperor Aurangzeb. His successor, being unable to withstand the increasing power of the Rahtors of Márwár, was compelled in 1698 to quit the country and retire with his family and dependants to Pálanpur, where the family has remained ever since. Firoz Khán, the chief in 1812, was murdered by his Sindi retinue. His son Fateh Khán applied for assistance to the British Government. A force was accordingly despatched under General Holmes, and Fateh Khán was ultimately, in December 1813, installed as chief of Pálanpur. The present (1876-77) ruler is named Diwán Zoráwar Khán. He is fifty-four years old, and administers the State in person. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, and has power to try for capital offences, without the permission of the Political Agent, any persons except British subjects. The chief enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £40,000, and pays a tribute of £5000 to the Gáekwár of Baroda. He maintains a force of 294 horse and 697 foot. The family hold a title authorizing adoption, and follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. There are 12 schools, with 610 pupils.

Pálanpur.—Chief town of Pálanpur State, Bombay; situated in lat. 24° 9′ 58″ N., and long. 72° 28′ 9″ E.; pop. (1872), 17,189. A line of railway connecting Pálanpur with Ahmedábád is now (1879) approaching completion.

Pálár (*'Milk River;'* also called the *Kohíranathi*).—River of Southern India; rising in Mysore in lat. 13° 27′ N., and long. 78° 2′ E. It flows south and east into North Arcot District, cutting off a small portion of North Salem, thence nearly due east across North Arcot into

Chengalpat (Chingleput), and finally south-east until it falls into the sea in lat. 12° 27′ 20″ N., and long. 80° 12′ 30″ E., a few miles south of Sadras. Total length, about 230 miles. The chief tributaries of the Pálár are the Poini and Cheyár; and on its banks are the towns of Kistnapur Vaniembadi, Ambúr, Gudiatham, Vellore, Arcot, Wallajábád and Chengalpat. It is crossed by railway bridges at Malevatti in North Arcot (2376 feet long, 18 spans), and between Chengalpat and Madarantakam (2160 feet long, 18 spans). The waters of the Pálár are largely used for irrigation. There is some reason to believe that this river once flowed in the present Cortelliár valley, which has been described as 'disproportionately large as compared with the river which runs through it in a rather deep channel.' The present valley of the Pálár is still more disproportionately small as compared with its river; the two alluvial valleys join, or rather diverge, at a place about 10 miles east of the town of Arcot. A stream is even now connected with the Pálár, just at the fork, by which water is still carried down the Cortelliár valley for many miles, and eventually falls into that river. This stream is considered by the natives to be the old Pálár, and bears a Sanskrit name meaning the 'old milk river,' the Tamil word Pálár also signifying milk river.

Palásbárí.—Market village in Kámrúp District, Assam; situated in lat. 26° 8′ N., and long. 91° 35′ E., on the south or left bank of the Brahmaputra. Considerable river traffic.

Palásbihar.—One of the petty States in the Dang country, Khandesh, Bombay.—*See* DANG STATES.

Palasgáon.—Estate in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in a wild and hilly country, 7 miles east of Nawagáon Lake. Pop. (1872), about 800, chiefly Halbás, residing in 14 villages; area, 134 square miles, of which only 2 are cultivated. The forests yield valuable timber, and contain herds of wild buffaloes and bison.

Palásgarh.—Estate in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated 20 miles north-north-east of Wairágarh, and comprising 51 villages. The country is hilly. The Marhattás occupied the fort after the capture of Chánda. This chiefship, formerly held by a Gond prince of the Wairágarh family, now belongs to a Ráj Gond of the Sáigam section.

Palasni.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 5½ square miles; estimated revenue in 1875, £510; tribute of £213 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Palaveram.—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras.—*See* PALLAVARAM.

Pa-law.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3513; gross revenue, £946.

Pa-law.—Village in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British

Burma; situated in lat. 12° 51′ 4″ N., and long. 98° 42′ 40″ E., on the left bank of the stream of the same name, and 40 miles north of Mergui town. Pop. (1877), 1481. Pa-law stands in the centre of a large rice-producing country, and has a considerable trade.

Paldeo.—Petty State in Bundelkhand under the political superintendence of the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Area, 28 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 8000; estimated revenue, £2000. Paldeo is one of the Kálinjar Chaubes, that is, one of the shares in the District of Kálinjar belonging to a member of the Chaube family. The lands belonging to the family were partitioned in 1812. The present chief is named Anrúdh Sinh. A military force is kept up of about 250 infantry. The capital of the State is situated in lat. 25° 6′ N., and long. 80° 50′ E.

Pálghát.—Municipal town in Malabar District, Madras; station of a Head Assistant Collector and District *munsíf;* situated in lat. 10° 45′ 49″ N., and long. 76° 41′ 48″ E., 68 miles east of Calicut, in the gap in the Western Gháts through which the south-west monsoon finds its way up to Coimbatore District. Pop. (1871), 30,752. Pálghát, being the key to Travancore and Malabar from the east, was formerly of considerable strategic importance, as its fort, built by a Hindu, attests. In 1768, it fell for the first time into British hands, Colonel Wood capturing it in his victorious raid on Haidar's fortresses. Haidar, however, retook Pálghát and all the other forts a few months later. In 1783, it was again taken by Colonel Fullerton, and in 1790 by Colonel Stuart; and from that time it was the basis of many of the operations against Tipú, which terminated in the storming of Seringapatam. The fort still stands, but is no longer garrisoned. Pálghát is a busy entrepôt for exchange of produce between Malabar and the upland country. The railway station (distant from Beypur 74 miles) was opened in 1862. Municipal revenue, 1876-77, £1510; average incidence, 9d. per head of municipal population. The easy ascent by the Pálghát Pass, formerly covered with teak forests, supplies the great route from the south-west coast of India to the interior, and is traversed by the Madras Railway and military road.

Palguralapalli.—Village in Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras; 39 miles north by east from Cuddapah town. Pharaoh says that a tope in the neighbourhood has long been a resort of pelicans and of a colony of storks, under the special protection of the inhabitants.

Pálhalli.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore; situated on the right bank of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, 7 miles by road north of Mysore town, and 3 miles west of Seringapatam. Pop. (1871), 1531. Until 1871, head-quarters of the Ashtagrám *táluk.* Well known as the site of the Ashtagrám Sugar Works, established in 1847 by Messrs. Groves & Co., and now carried on by a joint-stock company. The jaggery or inspissated

juice produced by the *rayats* from their own fields of sugar-cane, is here refined into sugar. The out-turn of sugar is estimated at 50 per cent. of the raw material, of the remainder about 30 per cent. The machinery, worked both by steam and water power, is capable of producing about 2000 tons in the year, which would afford the growers of sugar-cane a market for £17,000 of their produce. When in full operation, the works give employment to about 10 Europeans and 300 natives. Ashtagrám sugar won prizes at the London Exhibitions of 1851 and 1861, and an honourable mention at Paris in 1867. It is stated that the condition of the *rayats* in the neighbourhood has been sensibly improved by the opening of these works. A full description of the processes of manufacture is given in Mr. Rice's *Gazetteer of Mysore and Coorg*, vol. i. pp. 447-449.

Páli.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 25° 46′ N., and long. 73° 25′ 15″ E., on the route from Nasirábád (Nusseerábád) to Dísa (Deesa), 108 miles south-west of the former cantonment. An ancient place, acquired by the Rahtors of Kanauj in 1156 A.D. It is the chief mart of Western Rájwára, being placed at the intersection of the great commercial road from Mandavi in Cutch to the Northern Provinces, and from Málwá to Baháwalpur and Sind. It was formerly surrounded by a wall; 'and in consequence,' writes Thornton, 'its possession was frequently contested by conflicting parties during the civil wars of Jodhpur, until, at the desire of the inhabitants, the defences were demolished; and their ruins now give the place an air of desolation, at variance with its actual prosperity.' Páli was visited and described by Tod (*Annals of Rájásthán*) in 1819; by whom its commercial revenues were computed at £7500 per annum. Between 1830 and 1840, Páli was visited by a disease locally known as the Páli plague, and which closely resembled the Levantine plague. Water supply abundant.

Páli.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by *parganá* Pachhoha; on the east by the Garra river, separating it from *parganás* Sháhábád and Saromannagar; on the south by Barwán; and on the west and south-west by the Sendha river. The villages skirting the Garra, though light of soil, are the best in the *parganá*. In some of them the lands remain moist, by percolation from the river, till March or April, so that irrigation is scarcely required. In others, where the river runs between higher banks and with a narrower flood-basin, fine crops of opium, tobacco, and vegetables are raised along the river bank, owing to the ease with which a never-failing supply of water is drawn from it by lever wells. West of these villages, a belt of high, dry, uneven, unproductive *bhúr*, with an average breadth of about 3 miles, runs parallel with the Garra. All the villages in this tract have been rated in the third or fourth class. Here rents are low and wells are few. In some of the villages there is no irrigation at all. To the

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west of this tract, and up to the boundary stream of the Sendha, breadths of *dhák* jungle intersected by narrow marshy *jhíls*, along whose edges cultivation is gradually extending, alternate with treeless ridges of thinly cropped *bhúr*. Many of the jungle villages are fairly productive, with average soil and good water supply; but in some the soil is cold, stiff, and unproductive, and in almost all, cultivators are still few, rents are low, and much mischief is done by forest animals. In the extreme west of the *parganá*, as in the east along the Garra, a narrow strip of moderately good villages fringes the Sendha. There is not a mile of road in the whole *parganá*. Cart-tracks wind deviously from village to village. Area, 73 square miles, of which 46 are under cultivation. Population (1869), 28,087, viz. 25,579 Hindus and 2508 Muhammadans. The staple products are *bájra* and barley, which occupy three-fifths of the cultivated area. Wheat, *arhar*, rice, and gram, make up the greater portion of the remainder. Government land revenue, £3704, falling at the rate of 2s. 6d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 7d. per acre of total area. Of the 92 villages comprising the *parganá*, 50 are held by Sombansi Rájputs, and 17 by Bráhmans. *Tálukdári* tenure prevails in 19 villages, 56 are *zamíndárí*, and 17 imperfect *pattidárí*.

Páli.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh, and headquarters of Páli *parganá*; situated on the right bank of the Garra, 20 miles north-west of Hardoi town. Lat. 27° 31′ 45″ N., long. 79° 53′ 20″ E. A flourishing town during native rule, but somewhat decayed of late years, especially in the Muhammadan quarters. Pop. (1869), 5122. Two mosques and a Hindu temple; Government school. Market twice a week. Manufacture of coarse cotton cloth.

Pália.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh; lying between the Suhel and Sarda rivers, which respectively border it on the north and south; the eastern boundary is formed by Sháhjahánpur District of the North-Western Provinces; and the western by Nighásan *parganá*. Area, 139 square miles, of which 37 are under cultivation, the remainder being chiefly taken up by Government forest-reserves. A jungle *parganá* of the same character as KHAIRIGARH, the Rájá of which is also its proprietor. Pop. (1869), 20,370, viz. 18,576 Hindus and 1794 Muhammadans. Game abounds in the forests. The *parganá* is unhealthy, malarious fevers being very prevalent. Principal products, rice and turmeric.

Pália.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh, and headquarters of Pália *parganá*; situated 2 miles north of the Chauka river, in lat. 28° 26′ N., and long. 80° 37′ E. Pop. (1869), 4204. Two Hindu temples; bi-weekly market.

Páliganj.—Small town in Patná District, Bengal; situated near the Son river, and about 25 miles from Bankipur. Police station.

Pálitána. — Native State within the British Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Bombay, lying between 21° 23′ 30″ and 21° 42′ 30″ N. lat., and between 71° 31′ and 72° 0′ 30″ E. long. Area, 99 square miles; number of villages, 100; pop. (1872), 51,476. Except in the hills, where the air is pleasant, the climate is hot; and fever is prevalent. The principal agricultural products are grain, sugar-cane, and cotton. Pálitána ranks officially as a 'second-class' State in Káthiáwár; the ruler executed the usual engagements in 1807. The present (1876-77) chief, Thákur Sáhib Sursinhjí, is a Hindu of the Gohel Rájput caste, and is thirty-three years old. He is descended from Sárangjí, second son of Seja, as the Bhaunagar Thákur is from the eldest son, and Láthi from the third. The present chief of Pálitána has been engaged in a long contest to reassert his rights over his own Bháyat or brethren on the one hand, and over the Saráwaks or Jain traders who are interested in the holy mountain of Satrunjaya on the other. This hill, which rises above the town of Pálitána, covered with Jain temples, is the resort of innumerable pilgrims, for whom a fixed sum is paid yearly by the Saráwak community to the chief. Centuries before the Gohel chiefs established themselves in Surashtra, the Jains worshipped in Satrunjaya. They produce an imposing array of deeds from Mughal emperors and viceroys, ending with one from Prince Murád Baksh (1650), which confers the whole District of Pálitána on Sánti Dás, the jeweller, and his heirs. The firm of Sánti Dás supplied Murád Baksh with money for the war when he went with Aurangzeb (1658) to fight Dára at Agra and assume the throne. But the Mughal power has long passed away from Káthiáwár, and the jurisdiction of Pálitána fell into the hands of the Gohel chief, a tributary of the Gáekwár. While, therefore, the whole mountain is rightly regarded as a religious trust, it is under the jurisdiction of the chief, for whose protection the Saráwaks have long paid a yearly subsidy. A decision of the British Government, given in March 1877, while it upholds the chief's legitimate authority, secures to the sect its long established possessions, and maintains the sacred isolation of the hill.

The family of the Chief, in matters of succession, follow the rule of primogeniture. The present Chief administers the affairs of his State in person, and has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £20,000; pays tribute jointly to the Gáekwár of Baroda and the Nawáb of Junágarh; and maintains a military force of 545 men. There are 8 schools, with 332 pupils.

Pálitána. — Chief town of Pálitána State, Káthiáwár, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 31′ 10″ N., and long. 71° 53′ 20″ E., at the eastern base of the famous Satrunjaya Hill; distant from Ahmedábád 120 miles south-west, from Baroda 105 south-west, from Surat 70 north-west, and from Bombay 190 north-west. Pop. (1872), 10,243. Satrunjaya

Hill, to which reference has been made in the foregoing article, is sacred to Adináth, the deified priest of the Jains.

The following description of this wonderful temple-hill is condensed from an account by Mr. Burgess :—

'At the foot of the ascent there are some steps with many little canopies or cells, a foot and a half to three feet square, open only in front, and each having in its floor a marble slab carved with the representation of the soles of two feet (*charan*), very flat ones, and generally with the toes all of one length. A little behind, where the ball of the great toe ought to be, there is a diamond-shaped mark divided into four smaller figures by two cross lines, from the end of one of which a waved line is drawn to the front of the foot. Round the edges of the slab there is usually an inscription in Deva-nágari characters, and between the foot-marks an elongated figure like a head of Indian corn with the point slightly turned over. These cells are numerous all the way up the hill, and a large group of them is found on the south-west corner of it behind the temple of Adíswar Bhagwán. They are the temples erected by poorer Saráwaks or Jains, who, unable to afford the expense of a complete temple, with its hall and sanctuary enshrining a marble *murti* or image, manifest their devotion to their creed by erecting these miniature temples over the *charana* of their Jains or Arhats.

'The path is paved with rough stones all the way up, only interrupted here and there by regular flights of steps. At frequent intervals also there are rest-houses, more pretty at a distance than convenient for actual use, but still deserving of attention. High up, we come to a small temple of the Hindu monkey-god, Hanumán, the image, of course, bedaubed with vermilion in ultra-barbaric style; at this point the path bifurcates—to the right leading to the northern peak, and to the left to the valley between, and through it to the southern summit. A little higher up on the former route is the shrine of Hengar, a Musalmán *pir*, so that Hindu and Moslem alike contend for the representation of their creeds on this sacred hill of the Jains.

'On reaching the summit of the mountain, the view that presents itself from the top of the walls is magnificent in extent; a splendid setting for the unique picture—this work of human toil we have reached. To the east, the prospect extends to the Gulf of Cambay near Gogo and Bhaunagar; to the north, it is bounded by the granite range of Sihor (Sehore) and the Chamárdi peak; to the north-west and west, the plain extends as far as the eye can reach, except where broken due west by the summits of Mount Girnár—revered alike by Hindu, Buddhist, and Jain, the latter of whom claim it as sacred to Nemináth their twenty-second Tírthankar. From west to east, like a silver ribbon across the foreground to the south, winds the Satrunjaya river,

which the eye follows until it is lost between the Talaja and Khokara Hills in the south-west. But after this digression, let us return to the scene beside us. How shall I describe it? It is truly a city of temples,—for, except a few tanks, there is nothing else within the gates, and there is a cleanliness, withal, about every square and passage, porch and hall, that is itself no mean source of pleasure. The silence, too, is striking. Now and then in the mornings you hear a bell for a few seconds, or the beating of a drum for as short a time, and on holidays, chants from the larger temples meet your ear; but generally during the after-part of the day the only sounds are those of vast flocks of pigeons that rush about spasmodically from the roof of one temple to that of another, apparently as an exercise in fluttering and just to keep their wings in use. Parroquets and squirrels, doves and ringdoves abound, and peacocks are occasionally met with on the outer walls. The top of the hill consists of two ridges, each about 350 yards long, with a valley between; the southern ridge is higher at the western end than the northern, but this in turn is higher at the eastern extremity. Each of these ridges, and the two large enclosures that fill the valley, are surrounded by massive battlemented walls fitted for defence. The buildings on both ridges, again, are divided into separate enclosures, called *tuks*, generally containing one principal temple, with varying numbers of smaller ones. Each of these enclosures is protected by strong gates and walls, and all gates are carefully closed at sundown.'

A description of one of these *tuks* must suffice here, but the reader who wishes to pursue the subject will find an account of the other temples in Mr. Burgess' *Notes of a Visit to Satrunjaya Hill*, published at Bombay. The *tuk* now to be described is that of Khartarvasi, of which the principal temple is that of the Chaumukh or 'four-faced' Jaina occupying the centre. 'It is,' says Mr. Burgess (*op. cit.*), 'a fine pile of the sort, and may be considered a type of its class. It stands on a platform raised fully 2 feet above the level of the court, and 57 feet wide by about 67 in length, but the front of the building extends some distance beyond the end of this. The body of the temple consists of two square apartments, with a square porch or *mandap* to the east, from which a few steps ascend to the door of the *antarála* or hall, 31 feet square inside, with a vaulted roof rising from twelve pillars. Passing through this, we enter by a large door into the shrine or *garbha griha*, 23 feet square, with four columns at the corners of the altar or throne of the image. Over this rises the tower or *vimana* to a height of 96 feet from the level of the pavement. The shrine in Hindu temples is always dark, and entered only by the single door in front; Jain temples, on the contrary, have very frequently several entrances. In this instance, as in that of most of the larger temples, besides the door from the *antarála*, three other large doors open out into

porticoes on the platform—a verandah being carried round this part of the building from one door to another. The front temple has also two side doors opening upon the platform. The walls of the shrine, having to support the tower, are very thick, and contain cells or chapels opening from the verandah; thus the doors into the shrine stand back into the wall. There are ten cells, and some of them contain little images of *tírthankars;* those at the corners open to two sides. The pillars that support the verandah deserve notice. They are of the general form everywhere prevalent here—square columns, to the sides of which we might suppose very thin pilasters of about half the breadth had been applied. They have high bases, the shafts carved with flower patterns each different from its fellow, the usual bracket capitals slanting downwards on each side and supporting *gopis*, on whose heads rest the abacus—or rather these figures, with a sort of canopy over the head of each, form second and larger brackets. The floors of the larger temples are of beautifully tesselated marble—black, white, and yellowish brown. The patterns are very much alike, except in details, and consist chiefly of varieties and combinations of the figure called by the Jains *Nandavarta*—a sort of complicated square fret—the cognizance of the eighteenth Jaina. The shrine contains a *sinhásan* or pedestal for the image; in this temple it is of the purest white marble, fully 2 feet high and 12 square. Each face has a centre panel, elaborately carved, and three of less breadth on each side, the one nearer the centre always a little in advance of that outside it.

'On the throne sit four large white marble figures of Adináth, not specially well proportioned, each facing one of the doors of the shrine. These are large figures, perhaps as large as any on the hill; they sit with their feet crossed in front, after the true Buddha style, the outer side of each thigh joining that of his fellow, and their heads rising about 10 feet above the pedestal. The marble is from Mokhrano in Márwár, and the carriage is said to have cost an almost incredible sum. The aspect of these, and of all the images, is peculiar; frequently on the brow and middle of the breast there is a brilliant, set in silver or gold, and almost always the breasts are mounted with one of the precious metals, whilst there are occasionally gold plates on the shoulders, elbow, and knee-joints, and a crown on the head—that on the principal one in the Motisah being a very elegant and massive gold one. But the peculiar feature is the eyes, which seem to peer at you from every chapel like those of so many cats. They appear to be made of silver overlaid with pieces of glass, very clumsily cemented on, and in every case projecting so far, and of such a form, as to give one the idea of their all wearing spectacles with lenticular glasses over very watery eyes in diseased sockets.

'The original temple in this *tuk* is said to date back to a king,

Vikrama; but whether he of the Samvat era, 57 B.C., or Harsha Vikramáditya, about 500 A.D., or some other, is not told. It appears to have been rebuilt in its present form about 1619 A.D., by Seva Somjí of Ahmedábád, for we read thus:—"Samvat 1675, in the time of Sultán Núr-ud-dín Jahángír, Sawái Vijáya Rájá, and the princes Sultán Khushru and Khurmá, on Saturday, Baisákh Sudi 13th, Devráj and his family, of which were Somjí and his wife, Rájáldevi, erected the temple of the four-faced Adináth," etc. A stair on the north side leads to the upper storey of the tower. This temple is said to contain a hundred and twenty-five images.'

Fergusson, in his *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, has the following remarks on the Jain temple-cities, with special reference to this, the greatest of them all:—'The grouping together of their temples into what may be called "cities of temples," is a peculiarity which the Jains practised to a greater extent than the followers of any other religion in India. The Buddhists grouped their *stupas* and *viháras* near and around sacred spots, as at Sánchi, Manikyala, or in Pesháwar, and elsewhere; but they were scattered, and each was supposed to have a special meaning, or to mark some sacred spot. The Hindus also grouped their temples, as at Bhuvaneswar or Benares, in great numbers; but in all cases, so far as we know, because these were the centres of a population who believed in the gods to whom the temples were dedicated, and wanted them for the purposes of their worship. Neither of these religions, however, possesses such a group of temples, for instance, as that at Satrunjaya, or Pálitána as it is usually called in Guzerat. No survey has yet been made of it, nor have its temples been counted; but it covers a large space of ground, and its shrines are scattered by hundreds over the summits of two extensive hills and the valley between them. The larger ones are situated in *tuks*, or separate enclosures, surrounded by high fortified walls; the smaller ones line the silent streets. A few *yatis* or priests sleep in the temples and perform the daily services, and a few attendants are constantly there to keep the place clean, which they do with the most assiduous attention, or to feed the sacred pigeons, who are the sole denizens of the spot; but there are no human habitations, properly so called, within the walls. The pilgrim or the stranger ascends in the morning, and returns when he has performed his devotions or satisfied his curiosity. He must not eat, or at least must not cook his food, on the sacred hill, and he must not sleep there. It is a city of the gods, and meant for them only, and not intended for the use of mortals.

'Jaina temples and shrines are, of course, to be found in cities, where there are a sufficient number of votaries to support a temple, as in other religions; but beyond this, the Jains seem, almost more than any other sect, to have realized the idea that to build a temple, and

to place an image in it, was in itself a highly meritorious act, wholly irrespective of its use to any of their co-religionists. Building a temple is with them a prayer in stone, which they conceive to be eminently acceptable to the deity, and likely to secure them benefits both here and hereafter.

'It is in consequence of the Jains believing to a greater extent than the other Indian sects in the efficacy of temple-building as a means of salvation, that their architectural performances bear so much larger a proportion to their numbers than those of other religions. It may also be owing to the fact that nine out of ten, or ninety-nine in a hundred, of the Jaina temples are the gifts of single wealthy individuals of the middle classes, that these buildings generally are small and deficient in that grandeur of proportion that marks the buildings undertaken by royal command or belonging to important organized communities. It may, however, be also owing to this that their buildings are more elaborately finished than those of more national importance. When a wealthy individual of the class who build these temples desires to spend his money on such an object, he is much more likely to feel pleasure in elaborate detail and exquisite finish than on great purity or grandeur of conception.

'All these peculiarities are found in a more marked degree at Pálitána than at almost any other known place, and, fortunately for the student of the style, extending through all the ages during which it flourished. Some of the temples are as old as the 11th century, and they are spread pretty evenly over all the intervening period down to the present century.

'But the largest number, and some of the most important, are now erecting, or were erected in the present century, or in the memory of living men. Fortunately, too, these modern examples by no means disgrace the age in which they are built. Their sculptures are inferior, and some of their details are deficient in meaning and expression; but, on the whole, they are equal, or nearly so, to the average examples of earlier ages. It is this that makes Pálitána one of the most interesting places that can be named for the philosophical student of architectural art, inasmuch as he can there see the various processes by which cathedrals were produced in the Middle Ages, carried on on a larger scale than almost anywhere else, and in a more natural manner. It is by watching the methods still followed in designing buildings in that remote locality, that we become aware how it is that the uncultivated Hindu can rise in architecture to a degree of originality and perfection which has not been attained in Europe since the Middle Ages, but which might easily be recovered by following the same processes.'

Palivelu (*Pullivelu*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 41′ N., long. 81° 55′ E.; pop. (1871), 5315, inhabiting 1156 houses.

Paliyad.—One of the petty States in North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 17 villages, with 7 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £4000; tribute of £90 is paid to the British Government, and £30 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Paliyaverkadu.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras. —*See* PULICAT.

Palkherá.—Chiefship in Bhandáru District, Central Provinces; traversed by the main road from Kámthá to Sákolí, and comprising 12 villages. Area, 50 square miles, one-fourth of which is cultivated. A good deal of sugar-cane is grown, and the forests supply *sál* and *bíjesál* timber. Until 1856, the estate was a dependency of Kámthá. The chief and most of the population are Kunbís.

Palkole.—Town in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* PALAKOLLU.

Pálkonda (or *Sesáchalam: Pál*, 'milk;' *Konda*, 'a hill').—Range of mountains in Cuddapah District, Madras, lying between 13° 43′ 30″ and 14° 27′ N. lat., and between 78° 56′ and 79° 28′ 30″ E. long.; average elevation above the sea, about 2000 feet; highest point, Buthaid, 3060 feet. Starting from the sacred Tripati (Tirupati) Hill, and running north-west for 45 miles, the range then turns nearly due west, running across the District to the frontier of Bellary. To the first portion, the name Pálkonda is generally reserved, the part which crosses the District being called Sesáchalam. Mr. Gribble, writing of the entire chain, says:—'This is not only the largest and most extensive of all the Cuddapah ranges, but it also presents very marked features, and differs in appearance from the others. The Tripati Hill is 2500 feet above the sea, and the Pálkonda range continues at about the same uniform height very nearly throughout the whole of its extent. There are very few prominent peaks; and at a distance of a few miles, it presents the appearance, to any one standing on the inside portion, of a wall of unvarying height, shutting the country in as far as the eye can reach. The top of this range is more or less flat, forming a tableland of some extent. On both sides, the slopes are well clothed with forests, which, near the railway, are especially valuable, and form the important Balapalli, Yerra Goanto, and Kodúr reserves. A noticeable feature in this range, and especially on its south-western slopes, is the manner in which the quartzite rocks crop out at the summit. The rock suddenly rises perpendicularly out of the slope, and is wrested and contorted into various fantastic shapes, which not unfrequently give the appearance of an old ruined castle or fort. These hills were in former days a favourite resort of *dakáits* or gang-robbers, probably because they are not so feverish as the other hills of the main division. They are now nearly free from these pests of society. Wild beasts, however, are still to be found. Tigers are becoming annually more scarce; of leopards there are a large number, which are also very destructive; a few *sámbhar* deer are

to be found, and a few bears, but the hills have been too much marked to afford a good field for sportsmen.'

Palkonda.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* PALAKONDA.

Palk's Bay and Straits.—Gulf and channel between the mainland of India and the north part of Ceylon, named by the Dutch after Governor Palk. The gulf is bounded by Calimere Point and the coast of Tanjore to the northward and westward; by Adam's Bridge and its contiguous islands to the south; and by the north part of Ceylon, with its islands, to the east. The Dutch describe *three* channels between Calimere Point and the north end of Ceylon, which lead into Palk's Bay; but the southern channel, called Palk's Strait, contiguous to the north of Ceylon, is probably the only one that may be considered safe for large ships. Horsburgh, from whose account in the *Sailing Directions* this article is condensed, supplies the following details:—'Palk's Bay having been surveyed by the officers of the East India Company, the following directions for its navigation are given by Mr. Franklin:—"There are two good entrances into Palk's Bay from the eastward—one between Point Calimere and the northern end of the middle banks, having 19 to 24 feet; the other between the southern end of the same banks and the north coast of Ceylon, with $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 fathoms. Sailing directions were published some years back for the northern passage, but I would strongly recommend all commanders with a vessel drawing 12 feet to make use of that to the southward, except with a leading wind, or with the aid of steam. . . . . The following are the dangers in Palk's Bay:—

"1st. The middle banks—described by Horsburgh (pp. 553, 554).

"2d. A long sandy spit, with from 1 to 2 fathoms over it, stretching east by south 13 miles from a low point above Kotepatnam, on the coast of India. It has generally a heavy swash of sea over it, and should not be approached from the eastward nearer than 6 fathoms. Captain Powell places its eastern extremity in 10° 2′ 30″ N. lat., and 79° 19′ 30″ E. long., allowing Galle to be in 80° 16′ E. Its bearing from Pámbam (Paumbem) is N.N.E. 45 miles, and from Point Calimere S.W.$\frac{1}{2}$W. 29 miles.

"3d. The foul ground off the north-west end of Ceylon to the eastward of the opening between that and Karativu, where the coast ought not to be approached nearer than 2 miles; for although at present there are 12 to 15 feet over the knolls, the depths may decrease, as they are composed of coral.

"4th. A detached rock, about the size of a ship's boat, with only 2 feet water over it, between Purlitivu and the Devil's Point, having the following bearings:—Devil's Point, south 3 miles; south end of Purlitivu, E.S.E. $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

"Lastly. Some rócks awash, which lie about $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile off the north-

east end of Rámeswaram Island, where the soundings ought not to be shoaled to less than 5 fathoms. Care should be taken in the north-east monsoon not to get into the bay to the eastward of this island, as it will be found difficult to work out again."' See also Commander Taylor's *India Directory*, p. 450 (Allen, 1874).

Palladam (*Pulladum*).—Headquarters of Palladam *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 59′ N., long. 77° 20′ E.; pop. (1871), 945, inhabiting 199 houses. Cotton press, and ruins of old fort.

Pal Lahára.—Native State of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 21° 8′ 30″ and 21° 40′ 35″ N. lat., and between 85° 3′ and 85° 21′ 30″ E. long. Area, 452 square miles; pop. (1872), 15,450. Bounded on the north by the Chutiá Nágpur State of Bonái, east by Keunjhar, south by Tálcher, and west by Bámra. The east and north of the State are occupied by hills. A magnificent mountain, MALAYAGIRI (3895 feet), towers above the lesser ranges. Some of the finest *sál* forests in the world are found in Pal Lahára; its agricultural products consist of the usual coarse grains and oil-seeds, but it has nothing worthy of the name of trade. Of the total population (15,450), 9066 are Hindus; 35 Musalmáns; and 6340 of other denominations, including the aboriginal tribes of whom the Savars and Gonds are most strongly represented. The number of villages in the State was returned (1872) at 175. Lahára, the residence of the Rájá, situated in lat. 21° 26′ N., and long. 85° 13′ 46″ E., is the only village containing upwards of 100 houses. The Midnapur and Sambalpur high road passes through the State from east to west. Pal Lahára formerly belonged to Keunjhar, but was partially separated in consequence of family quarrels; and the Pal Lahára Chief now pays his tribute (£26) to the British Government direct. His estimated annual revenue is £120; the Rájá's militia consists of 67 men, and the police force of 57 men.

Pallávaram (*Palaveram*).—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 57′ 30″ N., and long. 80° 13′ E., on a wide plain, west of a range of stony hills, 11 miles south-west of Madras. A military cantonment and pensioners' station, with a garrison of about 650 men. The place is hot, but not unhealthy. A station on the South Indian Railway has recently been opened.

Palmá.—Deserted Jain settlement; situated within a few miles of Puruliá, and near the Kásái river, in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. The following description of the ruins is given by Colonel Dalton:—

'The principal temple is on a mound covered with stone and brick—the débris of buildings, through which many fine old *pípal* trees have pierced, and under their spreading branches the gods of the fallen temple have found shelter. In different places are sculptures of perfectly nude male figures, standing on pedestals and under canopies, with Egyptian

head-dresses, the arms hanging down straight by their sides, the hands turned in and touching the body near the knees. One of these images is larger than life. It is broken away from the slab on which it was cut, and the head, separated from the body, lies near. At the feet of each idol are two smaller figures with *chaurís* in their hands, looking up at the principal figure. I have now seen several of these figures, and there can, I think, be no doubt that they are images of the Tírthankaras of the Jains, who are always thus figured, naked or "sky-clad," each with his representative animal or symbol. Lieutenant Money also observed a stone pillar, set up perpendicularly, standing 12 feet high by 1½ foot square, with corners chamfered, making it an octagon; and near this, four more of the Tírthankaras are found. All about this temple mound are other mounds of cut stone and bricks, showing that there must have been here, at a remote period, a numerous people, far more advanced in civilisation than the Bhúmij and Baurí tribes who have succeeded them.'

Palmaner (*Pálamainer*).—Headquarters station of the *táluk* of the same name in North Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 13° 11′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 47′ 17″ E., 26 miles west of Chittúr; elevation above the sea, 2000 feet. Pop. (1871), 2193, inhabiting 396 houses. A healthy station, with lower temperature by about 10° F. than the rest of the District. It was at one time used as a sanatorium by the Europeans of Madras.

Palmyras Point.—Headland in Cuttack District, Bengal. Lat. 20° 44′ 40″ N., long. 87° 2′ E. Landmark for vessels making for the Húglí from the south. Commander Taylor thus treats of it in his *Sailing Directory* (1874):—' Point Palmyras (called by the natives Máipára, from the contiguous sandy island of this name) bears from FALSE POINT about north-east by north, distant 8 leagues; but from being abreast the latter in 14 or 15 fathoms, with it bearing west-north-west, the direct course is about north-east, and the distance 10 leagues to the outer edge of the bank off Point Palmyras in the same depth, with the point bearing west-north-west. Ships must be guided by the soundings in passing between them, as the flood sets towards, and the ebb from, the shore; from 14 to 15 fathoms are good depths to preserve with a fair wind. The land on Point Palmyras is low, and clothed with Palmyra-trees, having on each side of it, at a small distance, the mouth of a river; that on the south side is navigable by boats or small vessels. In rounding the bank off the Point, the trees on the land are just discernible in 15 fathoms water, distant about 4 leagues from the shore; ships, therefore, seldom see the Point in passing, unless the weather be clear, and the reef approached under 14 or 15 fathoms, which ought never to be done in a large ship during thick weather, or in the night.

'A ship passing False Bay in daylight, with a westerly wind, may steer along at discretion in 10 or 12 fathoms; but if she gets into 9 fathoms, and sees Point Palmyras, she ought instantly to haul out into 12 or 14 fathoms in rounding the eastern limit of the bank. When blowing strong from south-west or south, a ship with daylight, after rounding the banks off Point Palmyras, may haul to the westward, and anchor to the northward of the banks in 10 fathoms or rather less water, where she will be sheltered by them until the force of the wind is abated.'

Palní (*Palani* or *Pulney*).—Town in Palní *táluk*, Madura District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 27′ 20″ N., and long. 77° 33′ 1″ E., 32 miles west of Dindigal. Pop. (1871), 12,801, inhabiting 1782 houses. It is the headquarters of the *táluk*, and gives its name to the neighbouring range of mountains (*vide infra*).

Palní (*Palani, Pulney;* also called *Varahagiri, Vadagiri*, and *Kannandenan*).—Mountain range in Madura District, Madras, lying between 10° and 10° 15′ N. lat., and between 77° 20′ and 77° 55′ E. long. They extend in a north-easterly direction from the great mass of mountains known as the Western Gháts, with which they are connected by an isthmus or ridge of hills about 8 miles in width, being completely isolated on every other side. To the north are the Districts of Coimbatore and Trichinopoli; Madura and Tanjore to the east; Tinnevelli and Travancore State to the south and west. These mountains were surveyed more than fifty years ago by Captain Ward of the Surveyor-General's Department. He states their length, from east to west, to be 54 miles; average breadth, 15 miles; superficial area, 798½ square miles, including ANJINAD, now a dependency of Travancore. Captain Ward reckons the area of the Anjínád Hills at 231½ square miles, which leaves 567 square miles for the Palnís proper. The range, although nearly isolated, is part of the same system as the Anamaláis, and resembles the latter in so many respects that a large portion of the article on the ANAMALAIS may be read as referring equally to the Palnís. Anjínád may be taken as belonging to either group, and doubtless it is through the Palnís that the colonization of the western group will take place. Up to the present time, however, coffee-planting on the Palnís has only just begun, and it will be some time before there is need to move farther west.

The Palnís are divided into two groups, the higher and lower or the west and east ranges. The mean elevation of the former is about 7000 feet; of the latter, from 3000 to 4000 feet. The higher range, which has plateaux of over 100 square miles, is said to reach an elevation of 8500 feet in one of its peaks. The rocks (of gneiss with quartz and felspar) are covered with heavy black soil, and traversed by numerous streams. Both the higher and lower ranges are inhabited by tribes

similar to those of the Anamaláis. The total population of the hills is about 13,200 souls; 4800 on the higher ranges, and 8400 on the lower. (An account of the Puliyars and other tribes will be found in the article on ANAMALAIS, vol. i. p. 191.) The range is connected with the railway at Amanáyakanúr (40 miles distant) by a practicable pass, and other roads connect it with Travancore on the west, and Madura on the east. The sanatorium of KODAIKANAL enjoys a growing popularity, and the climate and temperature of this plateau are by many preferred to Utákamand (Ootacamund). Nearly all English trees and vegetables grow well; coffee, tea, and cinchona flourish, and there are already some plantations of these staples on the range. Fine forests and grass lands, a rich soil and an abundant water supply, numerous sites suitable for settlements, and perhaps the pleasantest climate in Southern India, are all awaiting the European colonist. The difficulty of communication has been in a great measure overcome by the railway to Amanáyakanúr. In the lower Palnís, about 10,000 acres of land are under cultivation, the chief crops being plantains, potatoes, coffee, etc. This tract is to the higher Palnís what the Wainád is to the Nílgiris, and both will probably be more highly developed in the course of a few years.

Paltá.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the Húglí, in lat. 22° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 88° 24′ E., 2 miles above Barrackpur. In old days it was known as containing a powder magazine, and as the point where the Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta crosses the Húglí towards the north-west. It is now more celebrated for its works supplying Calcutta, 14 miles distant, with water, the purity of which is daily tested in Calcutta by the Government analyst. The works include a jetty for landing machinery, coals, and filtering media, while it protects the two large suction pipes, 30 inches in diameter, which here dip into the river, and through which the water is drawn by pumps. There is an aided vernacular school at Paltá.

Pálupáre.—Village in the territory of Coorg, on the Kire river. The scene of a battle at the end of the 17th century, in which Rájá Dodda Virappa completely defeated an invading army from Mysore under the command of Chikka Deva Wodeyar. The Mysore army is said to have lost 15,000 men. There are ruins of a fort and temple, destroyed by Tipú Sultán.

Palwál. — Central eastern *tahsíl* of Gurgáon District, Punjáb; lying between 27° 55′ 30″ and 28° 14′ N. lat., and between 77° 14′ and 77° 35′ E. long.

Palwál.—Municipal town in Gurgáon District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1868), 12,729, consisting of 8519 Hindus, 4204 Muhammadans, 2 Síkhs, and 4 'others.' Situated in lat. 28° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 22′ 15″ E., in the open plain between the river Jumna (Jamuná) and the Mewát Hills, about 30 miles south-east of Gurgáon.

Town of undoubted antiquity, supposed to figure in the earliest Aryan traditions under the name of Apelava, part of the Pándava kingdom of Indraprástha. Stands upon a mound, which rises considerably above the surrounding level, and consists entirely of ancient remains, crumbling to decay. Importance purely historical; now a mere agricultural centre, with no manufactures, and a small trade in food-stuffs. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £713, or 1s. 0⅝d. per head of population (13,542) within municipal limits.

Pambai.—River in Travancore State, Madras; a rapid mountain stream, with rocky bed and high banks in its earlier course from the Western Gháts. In the plains, it becomes a fine navigable river, and, with the waters of the Achínkoil, which join it about 15 miles from its mouth, enters the great backwater at Alleppi. Its whole length is about 90 miles, for 50 of which it is navigable by large boats at most seasons.

Pámbam (*Paumben; pámbu*, 'a snake,' said to be named from the character of the channel).—Town giving its name to the passage between the island of Rámeswaram and the mainland, in Madura District, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 17′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 15′ 31″ E., at the western extremity of the island commanding the channel. Population in 1871 (with adjoining villages), 9407, in 1986 houses. The lighthouse, rising 97 feet above high-water mark, contains a fixed catadioptric light which guides vessels making the channel from the Gulf of Manaar. The channel is open to vessels of 500 tons burden. The population, chiefly Labhais, are employed as pilots, divers, and in other seafaring pursuits. Half the year, the Ceylon Government have their immigration depôt fixed here; and this, with the constant influx of pilgrims from every part of India, and the grain trade, gives the port an appearance of great activity. At one time the place was of importance on account of its pearl fishery, and at an early period it was used as a refuge for the Rámnád chiefs, in whose *zamíndárí* it is still included. They had a palace in RAMESWARAM.

Pámbam (*Paumben*) **Passage.**—The artificial channel called after the town of the same name, affording the means of communication for sea-going ships between the continent of India and the island of Ceylon. It lies between the mainland of Madura District and the little island of RAMESWARAM, which is the first link in the chain of islets and rocks forming Adam's Bridge. Geological evidence tends to show that in early days this gap was bridged by a continuous isthmus; and the ancient records preserved in the temple of Rámeswaram relate that in the year 1480 a violent storm breached the isthmus, and that, despite efforts to restore the connection, subsequent storms rendered the breach permanent. The Passage was formerly impracticable for ships, being obstructed by two parallel ridges of rock about 140 yards

apart. The more northerly of these ridges was the higher of the two, and used to appear above water at high tide. The space between was occupied by a confused mass of rocks, lying for the most part parallel to the ridges, and in horizontal strata. The formation is sandstone.

The first proposal to deepen this channel for traffic was made by a certain Colonel Manuel Martinez, who brought the matter under the attention of Mr. Lushington, Collector of the Southern Provinces of India, and afterwards Governor of Fort St. George. Nothing, however, was done until 1822, when Colonel de Haviland recommended the institution of a regular survey, which was entrusted to Ensign (now Sir Arthur) Cotton, whose name is so honourably associated with all the great engineering projects in the South. Cotton's opinion was favourable; but other matters diverted the attention of Government until 1828, when Major Sim was instructed to undertake experiments in blasting and removing the rocks. His report will be found at length in the *Journal* of the Royal Geographical Society (vol. iv.). The first scientific marine survey of the channel was conducted in 1837 by Lieutenants Powell and Ethersey of the Indian Navy, assisted by Lieutenants Grieve and Christopher, with Felix Jones as their draughtsman. The charts made on this occasion still remain the standard authority. Finally, in 1877, a connection was established by Mr. Chapman and Lieutenant Coomb, R.N., between the marine and land surveys; and a series of valuable observations were made on the tides, etc., which have been published in the form of a Hydrographical Notice.

The operations for deepening and widening the channel were commenced in 1838, and have ever since been continued. Convict labour has been employed to a considerable extent, under the supervision of the Madras sappers and miners. By 1844, the channel had been deepened to 8 feet of water at low spring tides, and two war steamers were able to pass through. The total expenditure up to that date was £15,595. In 1854, Lieutenant-Colonel Cotton reported that the uniform depth was 10½ feet; that the passage was navigable for keeled vessels of 200 tons; that the tonnage passing through in 1853 was nearly 160,000 tons, as compared with 17,000 tons in 1822; and that the total expenditure had been about £32,500. Colonel Cotton pressed upon Government that the channel should be extended on such a scale as to be practicable for ocean steamers; but this is forbidden by the shallow character of the neighbouring coast. Blasting and dredging operations have since been carried on regularly up to the present date. The main channel through the larger reefs of rocks has now been carried down to a minimum depth of 14 feet. Its length is 4232 feet, and its width 80 feet. In 1875-76, the total number of vessels that passed through, including several steamers, was 2657,

aggregating 269,544 tons; the Government share of pilotage fees was £2313. There is a second minor channel to the south of the main channel, called Kílkarai Passage, which is 2100 feet long and 150 feet wide, and has been dredged through a sandbank to the depth of 12 feet. In 1875-76, this was used by 805 vessels, paying £87 in dues.

The traffic passing by the Pámbam Passage is mostly of a coasting nature, between Ceylon and the mainland; though there is some emigration by this route to British Burma and the Straits. If ocean steamers are ever destined to run inside the island of Ceylon, it is stated that the best route will be a ship canal across either the peninsula of RAMNAD or the island of Rámeswaram.

Pámidi.—Town in Bellary District, Madras; situated in lat. 14° 56′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 39′ 15″ E., on the Pennair river, 14 miles south of Gúti (Gooty). Pop. (1871), 6140, residing in 1324 houses. Pámidi is an unhealthy place, occupied chiefly by a community of weavers.

Pámpur.—Town in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab, lying in lat. 34° N., long. 75° 3′ E., on the north bank of the river Jhelum (Jhílam), about 5 miles south-west of Srínagar, in the midst of a fertile tract, surrounded by orchards and gardens. Bridge of several arches spans the river; *bázár;* two Muhammadan shrines. Neighbouring country chiefly devoted to growth of saffron, considered finer than that of Hindustán.

Pánábáras.—Chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated 80 miles east-north-east of Wairágarh, within a dense belt of jungle; once dotted with 360 villages, but now covered with forest. Wild arrowroot (*tíkhúr*) grows abundantly in the valleys; and the hills yield much wax and honey. The climate is moist and cool even in the summer months. Pánábáras includes the dependent chiefship of Aundhí. The ruler ranks first of the Wairágarh chiefs.

Pánábáras.—Teak forest in the south-east corner of PANABARAS CHIEFSHIP in Chánda District, Central Provinces. Area, 25 square miles. The boundary has been cleared and marked out by the Forest Department, a temporary agreement having been made with the Chief for working the forest. The population consists of Gonds, but the *dahya* cultivation seems unknown to them. Some of the trees contain 200 cubic feet of timber. This forest supplied the teak used in the Nágpur palace, the Kámthi (Kamptee) barracks, and the Residency at Sítábaldí.

Pánágur.—Town in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 17′ N., and long. 80° 2′ E., on the northern road 9 miles from Jabalpur town. Pop. (1872), 3872, chiefly agricultural. Iron, from the neighbouring mines, forms the chief article of trade.

Pánáhát.—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 6571, consisting of 5776 Hindus and 795 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 26° 52′ 36″ N., and long. 78° 24′ 59″ E., 2 miles from the left bank of the Chambal, 30 miles south-east of Agra city.

Pánápur.—Agricultural town in Sáran District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 5871.

Panár.—River in Purniah District, Bengal; formed by the junction of a number of hill streams rising in Nepál. Its course is first south-east through Sultánpur and Háveli Purniah *parganás*, then southwards through Kadbá and Hatandá to the Ganges. It is navigable by boats of 250 *maunds*, or about 9 tons burthen, in the neighbourhood of Purniah, and above that for boats of 100 *maunds* (about 3½ tons), almost to the Nepál frontier. The current in the upper reaches is very rapid.

Panchamnagar.—Village in Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 24° 3′ N., and long. 79° 13′ E., 24 miles north-west of Damoh town. Pop. (1866), 2024, but the place appears to have been once much larger. The paper produced at Panchamnagar bears a high repute. Police station and village school.

Panchannagrám (‘*The Fifty-five Villages*’).—The name given to the suburbs of Calcutta, containing an area, according to the latest Revenue Survey Report, of 14,829 acres, or 23·17 square miles. Lat. 22° 30′ to 22° 41′ N., long. 88° 19′ to 88° 31′ E. No further particulars are given in the report, and it is not mentioned at all in the Board of Revenue's Statistics.

Panchaura.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £150; tribute of £20 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £4 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Pánchet (*Pánchkot*).—Large *zamíndárí* or landed estate in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; occupying an area of 1,209,795 acres, or 1890 square miles, being five-thirteenths of the total area (4914 square miles) of the District. It contains 19 of the 45 *parganás* into which Mánbhúm is divided, and pays to Government a revenue of £5579. The Rájás of Pánchet claim that they came into Mánbhúm as conquering Rájputs from North-Western India; but it is more probable that they were of aboriginal descent, and it is certain that their claims to supremacy were only nominally recognised by the other chiefs of the District. The earliest mention of the estate by the Muhammadan historians is given by Mr. Blochmann in *The Journal of the Asiatic Society* for 1871, as follows:—‘Of Pánchet, I have only found a short remark in the voluminous *Pádisháh-námah* (B. i. p. 317): “Bir Náráyan, *zamíndár* of Pánchet, a country attached to Subah Behar, was under Sháh Jahán a commander of 300 horse,

and died in the 6th year (A.H. 1042-43, A.D. 1632-33)." Short as the remark is, it implies that Pánchet paid a fixed *peshkash* to Delhi.'

Mr. J. Grant, in his Report to Lord Cornwallis on the Revenues of Bengal (Fifth Report, Madras edition, 1866, p. 464), writes of the '*Zamíndárí* Ráj of Pánchet' as a jungle territory of 2779 square miles, situated within the portion of country ceded to the Company, and differing very little in circumstances of financial history or internal management from the adjoining District of Bishnupur. From the year 1135 to 1150 of the Bengal era (1728-43 A.D.), Rájá Garur Náráyan was subject to an annual tribute of Rs. 18,203 for the Fiscal Division of Pánchet and the *kismat* of Shergarh. In 1743, an additional charge of Rs. 3323 was levied from the estate in the form of the *ábwáb chauth Marhattá* imposed by Alí Vardí Khán. In 1170 (1763), the *sarf-i-sikká*, or impost levied by Kásim Alí to cover losses on the exchange of coins, swelled the net assessment to Rs. 23,544. Muhammad Rezá Khán in 1766 raised the demand to Rs. 30,000, but only Rs. 5969 was in fact collected during that year. In 1771, a *zor talab* or compulsory exaction of Rs. 144,954, including a *saranjámí* or deduction for collecting charges of Rs. 17,302, was established, and the demand enforced by military authority. In the 'gross medium Settlement' of 1777 with Rájá Raghunáth Náráyan, 'the actual payment of Pánchet, with the recent territorial annexation of Jhálidá,' is stated at Rs. 69,027. Yet the native surveyors had discovered sources of revenue amounting in all to Rs. 154,423, including *palátiká* or revenue chargeable on lands that had been deserted by the cultivators. Finally, in 1783 the total assessment of the same territory amounted to Rs. 76,532, charged with a deduction of about Rs. 57,000 for collection expenses. This, Mr. Grant points out, gives little more to the sovereign than the original tribute, and 'leaves a recoverable defalcation exceeding 1 *lákh* of rupees, if we take the *zor talab* or compulsory exaction of 1771 as the proper standard.'

In the Permanent Settlement made with the Rájá of Pánchet, the Government revenue was fixed by assessing in detail every village within the *zamíndárí*, with the exception of the rent-free grants. A list of the latter was submitted to Government by the Rájá as early as 1771, and the rent-paying villages were returned in a similar manner at the time of the Decennial Settlement. The large number of rent-free grants is mainly due to the wish to induce Bráhmans to settle on the estate.

Pánchet.—Hill in Bánkurá District, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 37′ 30″ N., and long. 86° 49′ 15″ E., half-way between Raghunáthpur and the confluence of the Barákhar and Dámodar rivers. It is 3 miles long, stretching from north to south in a long rounded ridge,

at least 2000 feet above sea level. The hill is covered with dense jungle, and is inaccessible to beasts of burden.

Pánchipenta (*Páchipéta*).—Hill pass or *ghát* in Sálúr *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras, by which the road crosses from Sálúr to Jáipur. The crest of the pass is about 3000 feet above sea level. Lat. 18° 28′ N., long. 83° 12′ E. The village of the same name—containing in 1871, 747 houses and 3474 inhabitants—is the capital of an ancient *zamíndár*, a feudatory of Jáipur (Jeypore), and 'Count of the Southern Marches.' The Marhattá horse of Jafar Alí descended into the Chicacole Circar in 1754, by the treachery of the Pánchipenta *zamíndár*, who was, in consequence, imprisoned. One of the family fell at the battle of Padmanabhan in 1794. The estate pays a fixed revenue of £3000.

Pánchkot.—Large *zamíndárí* and hill in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. —*See* PANCHET.

Pánch Mahâls.—A British District on the eastern frontier of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 30′ and 23° 10′ N. lat., and between 73° 35′ and 74° 10′ E. long. Approximate area, 1731 square miles; population in 1872, 240,743 souls. For purposes of administration, the territory is distributed over 3 Subdivisions, which form two main groups, divided by the lands of Bária in Rewá Kánta. The south-west portion is bounded on the north by the States of Lunáwára, Sunth, and Sonjeli; on the east by Bária State; on the south by Baroda; and on the west by the same State and the river Mahi. The north-east portion is bounded on the north by the States of Chilkári and Kushálgarh; on the east by Western Málwá and the river Anas; on the south by Western Málwá; and on the west by the States of Sunth, Sángli, and Bária. On the transfer of the Pánch Mahâls from Sindhia in 1860, they were, in the first instance, placed under the Political Agent for Rewá Kánta. Since 1864, the District has in matters of account formed a part of Káira. For purposes of general administration, it is a non-regulation District, under the charge of an officer styled the Extra First Assistant Collector and Agent to the Governor, Pánch Mahâls. The administrative headquarters of the District are at GODHRA.

Physical Aspects.—The two sections of the District differ considerably in appearance—that to the south-west (except a hilly portion covered with dense forest, comprising the Páwagarh Hill, over 2600 feet high) is a level tract of rich soil; while the northern portion, although it contains some fertile valleys, is generally rugged, undulating, and barren, with but little cultivation. In some of the western villages, the careful tillage, the well-grown trees, the deep sandy lanes bordered by high hedges overgrown with tangled creepers, recall the wealthy tracts of Káira. In other parts are wide stretches of woodland and forest, or bare and fantastic ridges of hills without a sign of tillage or

population. In the north-east, the wide expanse of yellow corn, and the fields of many-coloured poppies, tell of the immediate neighbourhood of Málwá. Though there are many streams and water-courses, the District has no river, properly so called, except the Mahi, which touches a few villages on the north-west. From wells and pools, however, the District is sufficiently supplied with water. There were in 1876, 2382 wells, 130 water-lifts, and 693 ponds in the Pánch Maháls. Páwagarh, in the south-west corner of the District, is the only mountain of any size. It rises 2600 feet from the plain in almost sheer precipices, and has a rugged and picturesque outline on the summit, which is strongly fortified, and was formerly a place of much consequence. The District contains limestone, sandstone, trap, quartz, basalt, granite, and other varieties of stone, well fitted for building purposes. When, in 1860, the District was taken over by the British Government, large game of all kinds, and almost every variety of deer, abounded. As, however, large numbers have been shot annually for many years, the supply is now much reduced. Only within the last few years has any attempt been made to introduce a system of conservancy into the management of the Pánch Mahál forests. And so severely have they suffered from previous want of care, that, in spite of their great extent, little timber of any size is to be found. In 1876-77, the forest revenue amounted to £2518. Besides timber-trees, the most important varieties are—the *mahua* (Bassia latifolia), from whose flower a favourite intoxicating drink is prepared; the *khákhra* (Butea frondosa), whose flat, strong leaves are used as plates by Hindus; the mango, and the *rayen*.

Population.—The Census returns for 1872 disclosed a total population of 240,743 persons, residing in 693 villages and 56,922 houses. Density of the population, 139 per square mile; houses per square mile, 32; persons per village, 347; persons per house, 4·23. Classified according to sex, there were 126,304 males and 114,439 females; proportion of males, 52·46 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years — males, 50,729, and females, 46,255; total children, 96,984, or 40·28 per cent. Of the total population, 225,775 were Hindus, 14,921 Musalmáns, 17 Pársís, and 30 Christians. The bulk of the inhabitants belong to aboriginal tribes, 89,624 being Kolis, 68,710 Bhíls, and 5966 Náikrás; total, 164,300, or 68·24 per cent. of the whole population. Of these aboriginal tribes, the Náikrás are the lowest and poorest; until within the last few years, they have proved turbulent and unsettled. The Bhíls and Kolis, though in some degree better than the Náikrás, are bad cultivators, thriftless, idle, and fond of strong drink. To check the thieving tendencies of Bhíls and Kolis, and to prevent any renewal of Náikrá risings, the Pánch Maháls are provided, in addition to the unarmed police, with a regiment called the

Guzerat Bhíl Corps, 530 strong. Of the Musalmán population, 4461 belong to a special class, known as Ghánchis. These men, as their name implies, are generally oil-pressers; but in former times they were chiefly employed as carriers of merchandise between Málwá and the coast. The changes that have followed the introduction of railways have in some respects reduced the prosperity of these professional carriers, and the Ghánchis complain that their trade is gone. Several of them have taken to cultivation; and they are, as a class, so intelligent, pushing, and thrifty, that there seems little reason to doubt that before long they will be able to take advantage of some opening for profitable employment.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supports 173,819 persons in the Pánch Mahál, or 72·20 per cent. of the entire population. Of 290,998 acres —the total area of Government cultivable land — 152,081 acres, or 52·26 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1876-77. Of this area, 24,961 acres were fallow or under grass; of the remaining 127,120 acres under actual cultivation (25,590 of which were twice cropped), grain crops occupied 110,552 acres; pulses, 28,659; oil-seeds, 10,947; fibres, 1520; and miscellaneous crops, 1032. Considerable tracts of arable land have not yet been brought under the plough. The opening of the railway to the borders of the District will, it is hoped, bring both buyers of land and cultivators. During the past year (1876-77) colonization has been helped by the arrival and settling near the foot of Páwagarh Hill of about 1867 families of the Talávia tribe from the overcrowded tracts of Káira, Broach, and Baroda.

Trade, etc.—Besides the local trade, there is a considerable through traffic,—corn, timber, grain, oil-seeds, and *mahua* flowers passing westwards from Málwá and Mewár; and tobacco, piece-goods, and ironware eastwards from Guzerat. Besides the railway station of Páli, about 17 miles from Godhra, the chief town of the District, there are 115 miles of metalled roads. Labourers earn 3¾d. a day, and bricklayers and carpenters, 10½d. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were, for a rupee—wheat, 25 lbs.; common rice, 36 lbs.; and split peas (*dál*), 26 lbs.

Administration.—The revenue raised in 1876-77, from all sources, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £44,264, or, on a population of 240,743, an incidence per head of 3s. 8d. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting to £26,859; other important items are stamps and forests. The local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education yielded a total sum of £7605. Two municipalities were established in October 1876. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to an 'Extra First Assistant Collector,' with 2 Assistants, of whom one is a covenanted civilian. For the settlement of civil dis-

putes, there are 3 courts; 11 officers administer criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police consisted in 1876–77 of 824 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 318 of the population, or to every 2·19 square miles of area. The total cost was £12,298, equal to £7, 2s. 1d. per square mile of area, and 1s. 0¼d. per head of population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 970, being 1 person to every 248 of the population. There is one jail in the District. Education has spread greatly of late years. In 1855-56, there were only 7 schools, attended by 327 pupils. In 1876-77, there were 30 schools, attended by 2395 pupils, or an average of 1 school for every 22 inhabited villages. There are 2 libraries.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual rainfall during the five years ending 1876 was 43 inches. The prevailing diseases are fever and cutaneous affections. Two dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1876 to 537 in-door and 9633 out-door patients, and 9863 persons were vaccinated in that year. Vital statistics showed a death-rate in 1876 of 20·69 per thousand.

Pánchpára.—River in Balasor District, Bengal. Formed by a number of small streams, the principal being the Báns, Jamirá, and Bhairingi, which unite, bifurcate, and re-unite in the wildest confusion, until they finally enter the sea in lat. 21° 31′ N., and long. 87° 9′ 30″ E. The tide runs up only 10 miles; and although the interlacings constantly spread out into shallow swamps, yet one of them, the Báns, is deep enough for boats of 4 tons burden all the year round.

Pánchpukuria.—Town in Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the Gumti. Large river-borne trade in rice, jute, hides, etc.

Pandái.—River in Champáran District, Bengal; rising on the north of the Sumeswar Hills, and entering the Rámnagar Ráj through a pass between the Sumeswar and Churiá Ghátiá ranges, at the Nepál outpost of Thorí. For 6 miles below this pass its bed is stony, but the Pandái soon becomes an ordinary channel, with high clay banks. The flood discharge is considerable, the breadth of the stream being 100 yards, with a full depth of 8 or 9 feet. The course of the river is at first westerly; but afterwards it curves to the south-east, and joins the Dhoram about 2 miles east of Singárpur.

Pandariá.—Chiefship in Biláspur District, Central Provinces, comprising 292 villages. Area, 486 square miles, half of which is covered with hills, while the remainder is a cultivated plain, consisting for the most part of first-class black soil, largely devoted to cotton. Wheat, gram, and other *rabí* crops are also grown, besides much sugar-cane. The chief is a Ráj-Gond, and the chiefship was conferred on his ancestor three centuries ago by the Gond Rájá of Garhá Mandla. The chief town, Pandariá, lies in lat. 22° 14′ N., and long. 81° 27′ E.

Pandarkaura.—Village in Wún District, Berar. Lat. 20° 1′ N.,

long. 78° 35′ E. Scene of the defeat of the Peshwá Báji Ráo by the combined forces of Colonels Scott and Adams, on the 2nd April 1818. By this defeat the Peshwá's movement on Nágpur to aid Apá Sáhib was finally checked.

Pándá Tarái.—Ancient town in Bilāspur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 12′ N., and long. 81° 22′ E., near the foot of the Máikal Hills, 50 miles west of Bilāspur town. Pop. (1872), nearly 5000. Does a good trade in grain with carriers from Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). The weekly market is the largest in the PANDARIA Chiefship.

Pandaul.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated 7 miles south of Madhubaní, on the Darbhangah road. The site of a factory of the same name, which has the largest indigo cultivation in Tirhut. There are also the remains of a sugar factory by the side of a large tank ascribed to Rájá Seo Sinh, one of the ancient princes of the country.

Pan-daw.—Town in the Re-gyí township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 17° 19′ 30″ N., long. 95° 10′ E. Head-quarters of the united townships of Re-gyí, Bho-daw, and Mye-nú. Contains a court-house, police station, and market. Pop. (1877), 3982; revenue, £380. A rapidly rising place, sometimes called Re-gyí Pan-daw. It was here that the Talaing army made its last stand against the Burmese conqueror Alompra.

Pan-daw.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Chief products, rice and betel-nuts. Pop. (1877), 2075; gross revenue, £748.

Pan-daw.—Creek in Bassein District, British Burma.—*See* RE-GYI.

Pan-daw.—Revenue circle in the Myan-oung township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The western portion is undulating; the remainder is cultivated with rice. Pop. (1877), 6914; gross revenue, £1884.

Pandháná.—Town in Nimár District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 42′ N., and long. 76° 16′ E., 10 miles south-west of Khandwá. Pop. (1872), 2248. At the market held every Tuesday, a brisk trade is done in grain, forest produce, and cotton goods.

Pandharpur.—Chief town of the Pandharpur Subdivision of Sholápur District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 40′ 40″ N., and long. 75° 22′ 40″ E., on the right or southern bank of the Bhíma, a tributary of the Krishna, 84 miles east of Satára, 112 south-east of Poona (Púna), 38 west of Sholápur town, and 31 miles from the Bársi road station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Area, about 150 acres; pop. (1872), 16,275. The ruins of former buildings have somewhat raised the level of the centre of the town; and in that part the houses are comparatively well built, many of them being two or more storeys high,

with plinths of hewn stone. Pandharpur is highly revered by Bráhmans, as containing a celebrated temple dedicated to the god Vithoba, an incarnation of Vishnu. In honour of this god, 3 fairs are annually held. At the first of these, in April, the attendance varies from 20,000 to 30,000 persons; at the second, in July, from 100,000 to 150,000; and at the third, in November, from 40,000 to 50,000. Every month, also, four days before the full moon, from 5000 to 10,000 devotees assemble here. Since 1865, a tax of 6d. per head has been levied on pilgrims at each of the three great fairs, the average yield from this source being about £2500 a year. The town is well supplied with water, and satisfactory arrangements have been made for the comfort and convenience of pilgrims. Pandharpur is a municipal town, with an annual revenue of £5178. Sub-judge's court, dispensary, and post office.

Pándhurna.—Town in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 78° 34′ E., 58 miles south-west of Chhindwára town, on the main road from Betúl to Nágpur. The municipal limits include the villages of Bamní and Sáwargáon, and contain a total population (1870) of 5536, mostly agricultural. The soil around is rich and produces much cotton. Pándhurna has a police station, travellers' bungalow, *sarái* (native inn), and Government school.

Pándia (Πανδαίη of Megasthenes; *Pandi Mandala* of the Periplus; *Pandionis Mediterranea* and *Modura Regia Pandionis* of Ptolemy).—One of the three great Divisions of Dravida or Southern India, the other two being CHOLA and CHERA. The capital was first at Korkoi on the Támrapúrni, and afterwards at MADURA. An early legend runs that the three kingdoms were founded by three brothers from Korkoi, the two younger going north and west, and founding Chola and Chera. The kingdom of Pándia included Madura District and all south of it. Its early history is purely legendary, but it is believed to have been founded in the 6th century B.C., and it is known to have been overthrown in the middle of the 11th century of the Christian era, to be restored, after a period of anarchy, by the Náyaks. Bishop R. Caldwell says: 'The Singhalese traditions preserved in the *Mahávansa* represent Vijáya, the first sovereign of Ceylon, as marrying a daughter of the Pándya king, in consequence of which his son was called Pánduvamsadeva. Arjuna, one of the five Pándava brothers, is related in the *Mahábhárata* to have married a daughter of the King of the Pándyas in the course of his many wanderings. There is no certainty in these traditions, but it is certain that about the time of Pliny and the Periplus a portion of the Malabar coast was ruled over by the Pándyas, a proof that their power had considerably extended itself from its original seats; and I regard it as nearly certain that the Indian king who sent an

embassy to Augustus was not Porus, but Pándion, *i.e.* the King of the Pándyas, called in Tamil Pándiyan.' The Senderbandi of Marco Polo is assumed to be a corruption of Sundara Pándya, the King of Madura.

Pandri Kalán.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 10 miles south-east of Unao town. Pop. (1869), 3852, viz. 3792 Hindus and 60 Muhammadans. Market twice a week, with annual sales averaging £900. Government school.

Pandrinton (*Pandrenton*).—Temple in Kashmír (Cashmere), Punjab; standing in the midst of a tank, about 4 miles south-east of Srínagar, the capital of the valley. Lat. 34° 2′ N., long. 74° 47′ E., according to Thornton, who thus describes the building: 'It is a striking specimen of the simple, massive, and chaste style which characterises the architectural antiquities of Kashmír. The ground plan is a square of 20 feet, and the roof pyramidal. In each of the four sides is a doorway, ornamented with pilasters right and left, and surmounted by a pediment. The whole is constructed of blocks of hewn limestone. The interior is filled with water, communicating with that without, which is about 4 feet deep; and as the building is completely insulated, it can be reached only by wading or swimming. The purpose of its construction is not known, but it is generally considered a Buddhist relic. It exhibits neither inscriptions nor sculptures, except the figure of a large lotus carved on the roof inside.'

Pandu.—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 9¼ square miles; estimated revenue (1875), £310; tribute of £450 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. There are six chiefs.

Panduah.—Village and railway station in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 4′ 28″ N., long. 88° 19′ 43″ E.; pop. (1872), 3690. In ancient times, the seat of a Hindu Rájá, and fortified by a wall and trench 5 miles in circumference. It is now only a small rural village, picturesquely surrounded by groves, orchards, and gardens. Traces of its ancient fortifications are still discernible at places; a tower (120 feet high), built to commemorate a victory gained by the Muhammadans over the Hindus in 1340 A.D., is said to be the oldest building in Bengal. It has defied the storms and rains of a tropical climate for five centuries, and has seen the rise and fall of Gaur, Sonargáon, Rájmahál, Dacca, and Murshidábád, the successive capitals of Bengal during the Muhammadan era. For the local traditions relating to the war between the Hindus and Muhammadans, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. p. 313. Up to the commencement of the present century, Panduah was the seat of a large native paper manufacture, but not a trace of this industry exists at the present day.

Panduah (or as it is commonly, but less correctly, called, *Peruah*). —Deserted town in Maldah District, Bengal, once the Muhammadan

capital of the Province ; situated 6 miles from Old Maldah, and about 20 miles from GAUR, in a north-easterly direction from both. Like those of Gaur, the ruins of Panduah lie buried in almost impenetrable jungle, and now form the undisputed home of tigers and other wild animals. Although in all respects less noteworthy than Gaur, it contains some remarkable specimens of early Muhammadan architecture. Its comparatively small historical importance has given rise to more than one error. The maps scarcely mark the place at all, and uniformly give some one of the corrupt modes of spelling the name. Hence, when a mention of the place is found in history, it is often confused with the better known but much less important place of the same name in Húglí District. To avoid this difficulty, General Cunningham has proposed that it should be known as Hazrat Panduah. The proximity of Gaur has also overshadowed Panduah, so that the antiquities of the latter place have been sometimes attributed in their entirety to the former.

Panduah, unlike Gaur, is near no river, and does not possess any apparent advantages of site. Its first appearance in history is in the year 1353 A.D., when Iliás Khwája Sultán, the first independent king of Bengal, is said to have transferred his capital from Gaur to Panduah. It has been supposed that this king and his successors, who with difficulty repelled the Delhi Emperor, were influenced in their desertion of Gaur by strategic reasons. Panduah was not accessible by water, and was probably then, as now, protected by almost impenetrable jungles. It is not likely that the vast Hindu community of traders and artisans also left their homes at Gaur, but merely that the court was removed. This would explain both the smaller number of ruined dwelling-houses at Panduah, as well as the superior sanctity in which this place is held by the Muhammadans. The court name for Panduah was Firozábád, which during this period regularly makes its appearance on the coins, whereas that of Lakhnautí (Gaur) disappears. The seat of Government remained here during the reigns of five successive monarchs, when it was permanently re-transferred to Gaur. It is probable, however, that Panduah, though its name is not again mentioned in history, maintained its splendour for some time, and was a favourite country resort for royalty.

The history of Panduah is short, and the topography, so far as it has been explored, is equally simple. No survey has ever been taken of the site; and even Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton found himself unable to penetrate through the dense jungle beyond the beaten track. The following description is condensed from his account of the place, contained in his MS. notes on the District of Dinájpur, which in his time (1807-13) included this part of Maldah, whereas Gaur then lay within the District of Purniah.

A road paved with brick, from 12 to 15 feet wide, and not very straight (afterwards the high road from Maldah to Dinájpur), seems to have passed through the entire length of the town, which stretches nearly north and south, and is about 6 miles in length. From the heaps of bricks on both sides, it would appear to have been a regular street, lined with brick houses, of which the foundations and the tanks can still be traced in many places. Almost all the surviving monuments are on the borders of this road. Near the middle is a bridge of three arches, partly constructed of stone, which has been thrown over a rivulet. It is rudely built, and of no great size; and, as is the case with all the other monuments in Panduah, the materials have manifestly come from the Hindu temples of Gaur, as they still show sculptured figures of men and animals. At the northern end of the street are evident traces of a rampart, and the passage through is called Garhdwár, or the gate of the fortress. At the south end are many foundations, which have also probably belonged to a gate, but the forest is so impenetrable that the wall cannot be traced. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton was of opinion that in general the town extended only a little way either east or west from the main street, but that a scattered suburb reached in a southerly direction as far as Maldah.

Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton proceeds to give a detailed description of the ruins, which is too lengthy for insertion in this work, but which will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vii. pp. 60-64. The principal buildings of note are the monuments of Mukhdam Sháh Jalál and his grandson Kutab Sháh, the two most distinguished religious personages under the early Muhammadan kings of Bengal; the Golden Mosque (1585 A.D.), with walls of granite, and 10 domes of brick; the Eklákhi Mosque, containing, according to tradition, the graves of Ghiyás-ud-dín II., the third Muhammadan king of Bengal, and his two sons; the Adíná Masjíd (14th century), by far the most celebrated building in this part of India, and characterised by Mr. Fergusson as the most remarkable example of Pathán architecture in existence; and the Satásgarh ('Sixty Towers'), which is said to have been the palace of one of the kings. A Muhammadan *melá*, or religious gathering, takes place at Panduah every year in October or November; it is attended by 5000 or 6000 persons, and lasts for five days.

Panhán.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Purwá, on the east by Mauránwán and Rái Bareli District, on the south by the Lon river, and on the west by Purwá. The surface of the *parganá* is a level plain, except in the extreme south, where there is a slight inclination to the bed of the Lon. There are no jungles, and but few groves, but *bábul* trees grow plentifully along the Lon, on a ract of saliferous land, where salt was formerly manufactured on an extensive scale. This industry has, however, disappeared as a private

undertaking under British rule. Near the Rái Bareli border is a large lake or *jhil*, known as the Sudna Taláb, which is well stocked with fish. Area, 19 square miles, of which 9 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 7997, viz. 7769 Hindus and 228 Muhammadans. Of the 23 villages or *mauzás* comprising the *parganá*, 9 are *tálukdári* and 14 *mufrád*. Government land revenue demand, £1680. The *parganá* was formerly in the hand of the Bhars, and the ruins of an old fort are pointed out as the remains of the ancient Bhar stronghold. The Bhars were expelled many centuries ago by the Bais chieftain Abhai Chánd.

Panhán.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, and headquarters of Panhán *parganá*; situated 24 miles south of Unao town, on the road to Rái Bareli. Lat. 26° 25′ N., long. 80° 54′ E.; pop. (1869), 2773, viz. 2643 Hindus and 130 Muhammadans. Three Hindu temples. Two annual fairs are held in honour of a Muhammadan saint, each attended by about 4000 persons, at which the sales average about £2400. Vernacular school, attended by about 50 boys.

Pan-hlaing.—Creek in Rangoon and Thún-khwa Districts, British Burma. Runs from the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) at Gnyoung-dún to the Hlaing, just above Rangoon town. Its banks are steep and muddy, and covered with grass, trees, and plantain gardens. In the rains, large boats can navigate this channel throughout its whole length; but in the dry season, boats are compelled to take a circuitous route up the Pan-daing creek to Pan-daing village, and thence by a narrow passage back to the Pan-hlaing above the shoals between the villages of Khat-tí-ya and Mai-za-lí.

Pan-hlaing.—Revenue circle in the An-gyí township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A large plain, with swamps in its eastern portion. Pop. (1877), 10,269; revenue, £4974.

Paniála.—Agricultural village in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 70° 55′ 15″ E., at the entrance to the Largi valley, 32 miles north of Derá Ismáil Khán. Pop. (1868), 5502, consisting of 301 Hindus, 5185 Muhammadans, 13 Síkhs, and 3 'others.' Staging bungalow, abundant supplies.

Pánimar.—Village in the south of Nowgong District, Assam, on the Kapilí river, where it debouches into the plains from the Jáintia Hills. In the neighbourhood, good building-stone and limestone abound.

Pánipat (*Paniput*).—Decayed municipality and famous historical town in Karnál District, Punjab, and headquarters of a *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 29° 23′ N., long. 77° 1′ 10″ E.; pop. (1868), 25,276, consisting of 6363 Hindus, 17,700 Muhammadans, 37 Síkhs, and 1176 'others.' Situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 53 miles north of Delhi. The town is of great antiquity, dating back to the period of the war between the Pándavas and the Kauravas, when it formed one of the well-known *pats* or *prásthas* demanded by Yudishthira from Duryodhana as the price

of peace. In modern times, the plains of Pánipat have thrice formed the scene of decisive battles, which sealed the fate of Upper India. In 1526, Bábar with his small but veteran army met Ibráhím Lodi at the head of 100,000 troops near Pánipat, and, after a battle which lasted from sunrise to sunset, completely defeated the imperial forces. Ibráhím Lodi fell with 15,000 of his followers; and in May 1526, Bábar entered Delhi and established the so-called Mughal dynasty. Thirty years later, in 1556, his grandson, Akbar, on the same battle-field, conquered Hemu, the Hindu general of the Afghán Sher Sháh, whose family had temporarily driven that of Bábar from the throne, thus a second time establishing the Mughal power. Finally, on 7th January 1761, Ahmad Sháh Duráni fought beneath the walls of Pánipat the decisive battle which shattered for ever the unity of the Marhattá power, and placed the destinies of the Empire in the hands of the Afghán conqueror. The following graphic account of this great battle is taken from an article by Mr. H. G. Keene in the *Calcutta Review*, 1879:—

'The Marhattá troops marched in an oblique line, with their left in front, preceded by their guns small and great. The Bháo, with the Peshwá's son and the household troops, was in the centre. The left wing consisted of the *gardis* under Ibráhím Khán; Holkar and Sindhia were on the extreme right.

'On the other side, the Afgháns formed a somewhat similar line, their left being formed by Najíb's Rohillás, and their right by two brigades of Persian troops. Their left centre was led by the two Wazírs, Shujá-ud-daulá and Sháh Walí. The right centre consisted of Rohillás under the well-known Hafiz Ráhmat and other chiefs of the Indian Patháns. Day broke, but the Afghán artillery for the most part kept silence, while that of the enemy, losing range in its constant advance, threw away its ammunition over the heads of the enemy, and dropped its shot a mile to their rear. Sháh Pasand Khán covered the left wing with a choice body of mailed Afghán horsemen; and in this order the army moved forward, leaving the Sháh at his usual post, which was now in rear of the line, from whence he could watch and direct the battle.

'On the other side, no great precautions seem to have been taken, except indeed by the *gardis* and their vigilant leader, who advanced in silence and without firing a shot, with two battalions of infantry bent back to their left flank, to cover their advance from the attack of the Persian cavalry forming the extreme right of the enemy's line. The valiant veteran soon showed the worth of French discipline; and another division such as his would have probably gained the day. Well mounted and armed, and carrying in his own hand the colours of his own personal command, he led his men against the Rohilkhand columns with fixed bayonets; and to so much effect, that nearly 8000

men were put *hors de combat.* For three hours the *gardis* remained in unchallenged possession of that part of the field. Shujá-ud-daulá, with his small but compact force, remained stationary, neither fighting nor flying; and the Marhattás forbore to attack him. The corps between this and the Patháns was that of the Bauráni Wazír; and it suffered severely from the shock of an attack delivered upon them by the Bháo himself, at the head of the household troops. The Pandit being sent through the dust to inform Shujá what was going on, found Sháh Walí vainly trying to rally the courage of his followers, of whom many were in full retreat. "Whither would you run, friends?" cried the Wazír; "your country is far from here!"

'Meanwhile, the prudent Najíb had masked his advance by a series of breastworks, under cover of which he had gradually approached the hostile line. "I have the highest stake to-day," he said, "and cannot afford to make any mistakes." The part of the enemy's force immediately opposed to him was commanded by the head of the Sindhia house, who was Najíb's personal enemy. Till noon, Najíb remained on the defensive, keeping off all close attacks upon his earthworks by continuous discharges of rockets. But so far the fortune of the day was evidently inclined towards the Marhattás. The Muhammadan left still held their own under the Wazírs and Najíb, but the centre was cut in two, and the right was almost destroyed.

'Of the circumstances which turned the tide and gave the crisis to the Moslems, but one account necessarily exists. Hitherto we have had the guidance of Grant-Duff for the Marhattá side of the affair; but now the whole movement was to be from the other side, and we cannot do better than trust the Pandit. Dow, the only other contemporary author of importance—if we except Ghulám Husáin, who wrote at a very remote place—is irremediably inaccurate and vague about all these transactions. The Pandit, then, informs us that during the earlier hours of the conflict, the Sháh had watched the fortunes of the battle from his tent, guarded by the still unbroken forces on his left. But now, hearing that his right was reeling and his centre was defeated, he felt that the moment was come for a final effort. In front of him the Hindu cries of *Har! Har! Jai Mahádeo!* were maintaining an equal and dreadful concert with those of *Allah! Allah! Dín! Dín!* from his own side. The battle wavered to and fro, like that of Flodden, as described by Scott. The Sháh saw the critical moment in the very act of passing. He therefore sent 500 of his own body-guard with orders to drive all able-bodied men out of camp, and send them to the front at any cost. Fifteen hundred more he sent to encounter those who were flying, and slay without pity any who would not return to the fight. These, with 4000 of his reserve troops, went to support the broken ranks of the Rohillá Patháns on the

right. The remainder of the reserve, 10,000 strong, were sent to the aid of Sháh Wali, still labouring unequally against the Bháo in the centre of the field. The Sháh's orders were clear. The mailed warriors were to charge with the Wazír in close order, and at full gallop. As often as they charged the enemy in front, the chief of the staff and Najíb were directed to fall upon either flank. These orders were immediately carried out.

'The forward movement of the Moslems began at 1 P.M. The fight was close and obstinate, men fighting with swords, spears, axes, and even with daggers. Between 2 and 3 P.M., the Peshwá's son was wounded, and, having fallen from his horse, was placed upon an elephant. The last thing seen of the Bháo was his dismounting from the elephant, and getting on his Arab charger. Soon after, the young chief was slain. The next moment Holkar and the Gáekwár left the field. In that instant, resistance ceased, and the Marhattás all at once became helpless victims of butchery. Thousands were cut down, other thousands were drowned in escaping, or were slaughtered by the country people whom they had so long pillaged. The Sháh and his principal commanders then retired to camp, leaving the pursuit to be completed by subordinate officers. Forty thousand prisoners are said to have been slain.'

The modern town of Pánipat stands near the old bank of the Jumna, due south of Karnál, upon a high mound composed by the débris of earlier buildings. Brick-built houses; well-paved streets in centre of town; low and squalid outskirts, receiving the drainage of the higher portion. General aspect, miserable and poverty-stricken. Trade even in country produce almost extinct. Small local manufactures of glass-ware, country cloth, and blankets. Formerly headquarters of a British District, transferred to Karnál in 1854. Circuit-house, *tahsíli*, police station, staging bungalow, *sarái*, vernacular school-house, several native schools. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £935, or 9d. per head of population (24,483) within municipal limits.

Panjáb.—Province.—*See* PUNJAB.

Panjím.—*See* GOA.

Panjnád.—Great river of the Punjab, formed by the united waters of the Sutlej (Satlaj), Beas (Biás), Rávi, Chenáb, and Jhelum (Jhílam). Commences at the confluence of the Sutlej (Satlaj) with the Trimáb or Chenáb, in lat. 29° 21′ N., and long. 71° 3′ E., and, taking a south-westerly course of about 60 miles, joins the Indus nearly opposite Mithankot, in lat. 28° 57′ N., and long. 70° 29′ E. The Panjnád separates the British District of Muzaffargarh from the Native State of Baháwalpur. The stream, even after the junction with the Sutlej, often bears the name of the Chenáb.

Pan-ma-myit-ta.—Tidal creek in Bassein District, Pegu Division,

consequence of incrustation by some opaque coat, and have now been rendered obvious to the sight from its removal by fracture, friction, or some other accidental cause. More extensive and important than the tract just referred to is another extending from 12 to 20 miles north-east of the town of Panna, and worked in the localities of Kamariya, Brijpur, Bargári, Maira, and Etwa. Diamonds of the first water, or completely colourless, are very rare, most of those found being either pearly, greenish, yellowish, rose-coloured, black, or brown.' Pogson, who worked one of the mines on his own account, mentions that the diamonds are of four sorts—the *motichal*, which is clear and brilliant; the *mánik*, of greenish hue; the *panna*, which is tinged with orange; and the *bauspat*, which is blackish. In his time, the mines chiefly worked were at Sakáriya, about 12 miles from Panna; and he thus describes the operation: 'The diamonds there are found below a stratum of rock from 15 to 20 feet thick. To cut through this rock is, as the natives work, a labour of many months, and even years; but when the undertaking is prosecuted with diligence, industry, and vigour, the process is as follows:—On the removal of the superficial soil, the rock is cut with chisels, broken with large hammers, and a fire at night is sometimes lit on the spot, which renders it more friable. Supposing the work to be commenced in October, the miners may possibly cut through the rock by March. The next four months are occupied in digging out the gravel in which diamonds are found; this is usually a work of much labour and delay, in consequence of the necessity of frequently emptying the water from the mines. The miners then await the setting in of the rainy season, to furnish them with a supply of water for the purpose of washing the gravel.' The same writer considers that 'inexhaustible strata producing diamonds exist here.' 'None of the great diamonds now known appear to be traceable to the mines in Panna, and Tieffenthaler mentions it as a general opinion that those of Golconda are superior.' Iron is also found in the State.

The chief of Panna is descended from Hardi Sáh, one of the sons of the famous Mahárájá Chhatar Sál. When the British entered Bundelkhand, Rájá Kishor Sinh was the chief of the State, which was then in a condition of complete anarchy. He was confirmed in his possessions by *sanads* granted in 1807 and 1811. As a reward for services rendered during the Mutiny of 1857, the Rájá received the privilege of adoption, a dress of honour of £2000, and a personal salute of 13 guns. The present Mahárájá, Rudra Pratáp Sinh, who is a Búndela Rájput, succeeded in 1870, and in 1876 was invested with the insignia of a Knight Commander of the Star of India by His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.

The population of Panna was in 1875 estimated at about 183,000.

The land revenue in the same year was estimated at 5 *lákhs* of rupees (say £50,000), but much of this amount is alienated. A small and fluctuating revenue is also derived from the diamond mines. Tribute of £995 is paid on the Districts of Surájpur and Ektána. A road has been constructed from the capital to Simáriya (40 miles). Schools have also been founded in the State. A military force is maintained of 250 cavalry and 2440 infantry, with 19 guns and 60 artillerymen.

Panna.—Chief town of the Native State of the same name, Bundelkhand, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 43′ 30″ N., and long. 80° 13′ 55″ E., on the route from Bánda to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), 62 miles south of the former and 169 miles north of the latter; distant from Kalpi 130 miles south, and from Allahábád 173 south-west. The neighbouring diamond mines, which take their name from the town, are described in the article on PANNA STATE (*vide supra*).

Panniar (*Punniar*).—Town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated in lat. 26° 6′ 12″ N., and long. 78° 2′ 2″ E., 12 miles south-west of Gwalior fort. 'Scene of an engagement,' writes Thornton, 'on the 29th December 1843 (the date of the victory of Mahárájpur), between the British and Marhattá forces. Major-General Grey, leading from Bundelkhand a British detachment to co-operate with that marching from Agra under the conduct of Sir Hugh Gough, commander-in-chief, crossed the river Sind at Chándpur, and proceeding north-west, on the 29th, after a march of 16 miles, was attacked by the Marhattá army, strongly posted near the village of Mangor. The British army took post at Panniar, and, by a series of attacks, drove the enemy from all points of his position, capturing all his artillery, amounting to 24 pieces, and all his ammunition. The Marhattá army is represented to have been about 12,000 strong, and to have suffered most severely. The British loss amounted to 35 killed and 182 wounded.'

Panroti (*Panrutti*).—Town in South Arcot District, Madras, and a station on the South Indian Railway. A large market town, being situated at the junction of several important roads, in lat. 11° 46′ 40″ N., and long. 79° 35′ 16″ E. Pop. (1871), 6962, residing in 987 houses.

Pantalaori.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 6½ square miles. There are two chiefs, Nathu Khán and Nazír Khán. Estimated revenue (1875), £800; tribute of £20 is paid to the Rájá of Rájpípla.

Pántán.—Forest reserve in the south of Kámrúp District, Assam, on the left bank of the Kulsí river; containing valuable *sál* timber. Area, 12 square miles.

Pan-ta-naw.—Township in Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 238 square miles; revenue (1877), £16,482.

It is divided into 5 revenue circles, with a total population (1877) of 34,971 persons. The greater part of the country is covered with forest.

Pan-ta-naw.—Revenu cierclе in the above township, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 23 square miles; pop. (1877), 8002; gross revenue, £1243. Situated on the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), and inundated during the rains. The central and north-west portions consist of rice plains.

Pan-ta-naw.—Town in the township of the same name, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the river Irawadi (Irrawaddy), in lat. 16° 55′ N., and long. 95° 28′ E. Pop. (1877), 5824. Headquarters of an extra-Assistant Commissioner. Considerable river-borne traffic in *nga-pí*, dried salted fish, piece-goods, and hardware.

Panwári.—South-western *tahsíl* of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of part of the hilly and rocky southern border. Area, 556 square miles, of which 270 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 123,911; land revenue, £21,517; total Government revenue, £23,340; rental paid by cultivators, £41,459; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 2½d.

Panwel.—Chief town of the Panwel Subdivision of Tanna District, Bombay; situated 16 miles south by east of Tanna town, in lat. 18° 58′ 50″ N., and long. 73° 9′ 10″ E. Pop. (1872), 10,836. Panwel is a municipal town, with an annual income of £406; average annual value of trade at the port during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £120,230, and exports, £253,130. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Pápaginí (*'Without Sin,' pápa-hín*).—River of Southern India, rising in the Mysore (Maisúr) territory. After entering the Madanapalli *táluk* in Cuddapah District, Madras (lat. 13° 43′ N., long. 78° 10′ E.), it flows through the large tank at Kandakúr, and thence north through the Pálkonda Hills at Vempalli, where it is known as the Gandairú ('River of the Gorge'). Thence it flows through the Cuddapah *táluk* into the Pennár, the confluence being in lat. 14° 37′ N., and long. 78° 47′ E. The Pápaginí is held sacred, and on its banks, in the Pálinendla *táluk*, is a large pagoda. A railway girder bridge, with 22 spans of 72 feet, crosses the river a short distance from Kamalápur.

Pápanásam (*'Removal of Sin'*).—Village in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 48′ N., long. 77° 24′ E. Noted as a place of pilgrimage, and for the falls of the Támrapúrni river. The cataract is only 80 feet high, but the body of water is very great. The pagoda is much venerated. The fish here are fed by the Bráhmans, and come up for food when called.

Pápikonda.—Mountain in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* BISON RANGE.

Pa-pwon.—Revenue circle in the Salwín (Salween) Hill Tracts, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 4487.

Pa-pwon.—Headquarters of Salwín (Salween) District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on the Rwon-za-leng river. Contains a court-house, temporary hospital, and dispensary; a strong police force is quartered in a stockade close to the village.

Paráhát.—Sequestrated estate in Singbhúm District, Bengal. Area, 791 square miles; pop. (1872), 54,374, dwelling in 380 villages and 10,327 houses. Number of Hindus, 26,364; Muhammadans, 200; Christians, 484; and 'others,' 27,326. Average number of persons per square mile, 69; villages per square mile, 0·48; houses per square mile, 13; persons per house, 5·3; proportion of males in total population, 50·8.

Two rival legends are current concerning the origin of the chiefs of Paráhát, who were formerly called Rájás of Singbhúm. One of these, apparently an aboriginal tradition, alleges that the founder of the family was discovered as a boy in a hollow tree, which a Bhuiyá forester was cutting down. This boy became the head of the Bhuiyá tribe, and worshipped Pauri or Pahárí Deví, a peculiarly Bhuiyá divinity, corresponding to the Thákuráni Mái of the Bhuiyás in Keunjhar. The Sinh family themselves, however, claim to be Kshattriyas of pure blood. They assert that, many generations ago, the first of their race, a Kadambansí Rájput from Márwár, while passing through the country on a pilgrimage to the shrine of Jagannáth at Purí, was chosen by the people as their Rájá. Some time afterwards, a dispute arose between the Bhuiyás of Eastern Singbhúm and the Larka Kols of the central tract of Kolhán; the chief's family joined the Kols, and after they had put down the Bhuiyás, claimed sovereignty over both tribes. This latter legend is no doubt open to suspicion, as arrogating to the family a distant foreign origin, and indirectly supporting their invalid claim to supremacy over the Kols; but it is corroborated by the fact that good families admit the Rájput origin of the Paráhát chief.

The estate of Paráhát or Singbhúm Proper was saved by its rocky boundaries and sterile soil from conquest by the Marhattás, and was thoroughly independent when in 1818 Rájá Ghanshám Sinh Deo tendered his allegiance to the British Government. The neighbouring estates of Sáraikalá and Kharsáwán abutted on the frontier of the old Jungle Mahals of Western Bengal; and as early as 1793, engagements relating to fugitive rebels had been taken from their chiefs. But the Paráhát estate lay farther west, and there had previously been no communication between its chief and the British Government. The objects of the Rájá in thus becoming a British feudatory were,—first, to be recognised as lord paramount over Vikrám Sinh, ancestor of the present Rájá of Sáraikalá, and Bábu Chaitan Sinh of Kharsáwán; secondly, to

regain possession of a certain tutelary image, which had fallen into the hands of Bábu Vikrám Sinh of Sáraikalá; and lastly, to obtain aid in reducing the refractory tribe of Larka Kols or Hos. The British Government, while disallowing his claim to supremacy over his kinsmen of Sáraikalá and Kharsáwán, exacted from him a nominal tribute of Rs. 101 (£10, 2s.), and declined to interfere in any way with the internal administration of the estate. An engagement embodying these conditions was taken from him on the 1st of February 1820; and it was intended that similar agreements should be entered into by the chiefs of Sáraikalá and Kharsáwán. The matter, however, appears to have been overlooked at the time; and those chiefs have never paid tribute, though they have frequently been called upon to furnish contingents of armed men to aid in suppressing disturbances. In 1823, the Rájá of Paráhát regained by a Government order the family idol, which he had claimed in 1818 from the Rájá of Sáraikalá. But he gradually sunk into poverty, and in 1837 was granted a pension of Rs. 500 (£50) as a compassionate allowance, in compensation for any losses he might have sustained in consequence of our assumption of the direct management of the Kolhán. In 1857, Arjun Sinh, the last Rájá of Paráhát, after delivering up to Government the Cháibása mutineers, in a moment of caprice rebelled himself, and was sentenced to imprisonment for life at Benares. The estate of Paráhát was confiscated, and is now under the direct management of Government.

Parambakudi.—Busy weaving town in Madura District, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 31′ N., and long. 78° 42′ E. Pop. (1871), 6284, residing in 1134 houses.

Párangla.—Pass in Kángra District, Punjab, over the Western Himálayan range from Kibbár in Spiti to Rúpshú in Ladákh. Lat. 32° 31′ N., long. 78° 1′ E. Practicable for laden *yáks* and ponies. Elevation above sea level, according to Cunningham, 18,500 feet.

Parántij (*Parantej*). — Chief town of the Parántij Subdivision, Ahmedábád District, Bombay. Lat. 23° 26′ 20″ N., long. 72° 53′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 8341. Parántij is a municipality, with an annual income of £263. Post office and dispensary.

Párasnáth. — Hill and place of Jain pilgrimage, in the east of Hazáribágh District, and adjoining Mánbhúm, Bengal. Lat. 23° 57′ 35″ N., long. 86° 10′ 30″ E. The mountain consists of a central narrow ridge, with rocky peaks, rising abruptly to a height of 4479 feet from the level country on the south-west, and throwing out long spurs, which extend towards the Barákhar river on the north. A spur to the south-east forms the boundary between the Districts of Hazáribágh and Mánbhúm, and eventually subsides into an extended belt of high land with peaked hills in the latter District. Párasnáth, for ages a site of Jain pilgrimage, was ascended apparently for the first time by a

European, Colonel Franklin, in 1819. He climbed by a narrow steep path, through thick forest, on the northern slope. 'As you ascend,' he wrote, 'the mountain presents a stupendous appearance. At intervals you perceive the summit, appearing in bluff, jagged peaks, eight in number, and towering to the clouds. From an opening in the forest, the view is inexpressibly grand, the wide extent of the jungle *tarái* stretching beneath your feet. The summit, emphatically termed by the Jains *Asmid* (more correctly, *Samet*) *Sikhar*, or "The Peak of Bliss," is composed of a table-land flanked by twenty small Jain temples on the craggy peaks.' In 1827, it was visited by a Government officer, in the course of his official tour, who describes it as 'thickly covered with magnificent trees from the plain to within a few yards of each pinnacle.' Dr. (now Sir Joseph) Hooker ascended the hill from the Táldángá side in 1848, and was also much impressed by its beauty: 'As the sun rose, Párasnáth appeared against the clear grey in the form of a beautiful broad cone, with a rugged peak of a deeper grey than the sky. It is a remarkably handsome mountain, sufficiently lofty to be imposing; and it is surrounded by lesser hills of just sufficient elevation to set it off.' Parts of the forest have disappeared, and there is now a good pathway to the top, but the hill still retains much of its old wild beauty; and the valleys of the Barákhar and Damodár rivers, which stretch on either side, form a striking landscape. The hill is now easily approached by railway to Barákhar station, and thence by a few hours' easy drive along the Grand Trunk Road. In 1858, Párasnáth was selected as a convalescent depôt for European troops. The coolness of its climate, (averaging during the seven hot months 16° F. below that of the plains), the purity of its air, its nearness to Calcutta, and the abundant building materials on the spot, recommended the hill for this purpose. Buildings were erected; but the water supply proved sufficient for only from 60 to 80 men, the plateau at the summit was too confined for exercise, and the solitude and quiet exerted a depressing influence on the invalid soldiers. They conceived an intense dislike to the spot, and begged to be allowed to take their chance in hospital on the plains. This feeling seriously retarded their recovery; and it was found that, although the place was an excellent sanatorium for the robust or the very sick, it was unsuitable for convalescents, who could not take exercise beyond the cramped limits of the plateau. After much discussion, Párasnáth was given up as a sanatorium in 1868; and next year the buildings had already fallen into decay, and the mountain was again abandoned to the forest and wild beasts and Jain pilgrims. The latter flock, to the number of 10,000 annually, from distant parts of India to this remote spot—the scene of *Nirvána*, or 'beatific annihilation' of no less than 10 of the 24 deified saints, who are the objects of Jain adoration. From the last of these, Pársva or Pársvanátha, the

hill, originally called Samet Sikhar, took its better known name of Párasnáth. (For a full account of the shrines and ceremonies, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 216-217.) Pilgrimage to Párasnáth is still as popular as ever; devotees throng from the southern and western extremes of India, and new shrines, a single one of which in white marble cost £8000, are from time to time erected. The Jain temples lie well apart from the plateau, and the improved means of communication with Calcutta hold out a possibility of the latter being yet utilized as a small and cheaply-reached sanatorium.

Paráspur-Atá.—Two adjacent villages in Gonda District, Oudh; situated 15 miles south-west of Gonda town, on the road between Nawábganj and Colonelganj. Joint population (1869) of the two villages, 7107, composed almost entirely of Hindus. Paráspur was founded about 400 years ago by Rájá Parás Rám Kalháns, the only son of the Gonda Rájá, whose destruction by a sudden flood of the Gogra is narrated in the District article (vol. iii. p. 427). His descendant, the present Rájá of Paráspur, and chief of the Kalháns of Guwárich, still resides in a large mud-house to the east of the village. The Bábu of Atá, representative of a younger branch of the same family, enjoying a separate estate, lives in Atá, a name accounted for by the following legend. Bábu Lál Sáh, the first of his branch of the family, when out hunting near Paráspur, met a *fakír* eating what appeared to be carrion. The holy man pressed him to join, and his repugnance yielded to hunger and a dread of the curse which was threatened on his refusal. To his surprise, it turned out to be excellent wheat flour (*áta*), and, at the *fakír's* bidding, a pot full of the deceptive flesh was buried under the doorway of the fort which Lál Sáh was building. On the boundary of the two villages is a flourishing school, attended by over 100 boys. Market twice a week.

Paraswára.—Town in the highland portion of Bálághát District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 11′ N., and long. 80° 20′ E., in the centre of a well-watered plateau, and surrounded by 30 thriving villages, and excellent rice-fields. A *náib tahsíldár* is stationed at Paraswára, and there is also a police station.

Paratwára.—Military cantonment and civil station in Ellichpur District, Berar; situated in lat. 21° 18′ N., and long. 77° 33′ 20″ E., on the Sápan and Bichan streams, about 2 miles from the city of Ellichpur. A force of all arms is stationed here. The cantonment is well laid out, but is not considered healthy, the site being low and too much under the hills. Schools, police station, civil jail, Small Cause and Cantonment Courts, and a Government garden. Pop. (according to the Administration Report of 1876-77), 12,319, but the number varies with the strength of the force cantoned here.

Paráuna.—*Tahsíl* and town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* PADRAUNA.

Paravanár.—River of South Arcot District, Madras; rising in lat. 11° 31′ N., and long. 79° 43′ E. After a course of about 32 miles in a generally northerly direction, and parallel to the coast, it enters the sea at Cuddalore (lat. 11° 44′ N., long. 79° 50′ 30″ E.). It is navigable for 10 miles, and is connected with the Vellár by a canal, which, begun in 1856-57, and stopped at the time of the Mutiny, was re-opened as a famine work in 1878.

Páravúr (*Párúr*).—Chief town of Páravúr Subdivision, Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 10° 10′ N., long. 76° 16′ E. A busy trading place, and formerly a military station. Pop. (1871), 3363, including a number of 'White' Jews and Christians. At one time Páravúr town belonged to Cochin, but in 1762 it was made over to Travancore. Tipú destroyed a great part of the town.

Párbatí (*Párvvatí*).—River in Kángra District, Punjab, draining Kullu Proper; rises in Wazíri Rúpi, on the slopes of a Mid-Himálayan peak, over 20,000 feet in height. Runs in a generally westerly direction, and falls into the Beas (Biás) below Sultánpur, in lat. 31° 53′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 11′ E., after a total course of about 90 miles. For the first 50 miles the mountains on either side rise bare and uninhabited; but below Manikarn, a distance of 40 miles, the valley consists of a richly timbered tract, in which every available acre has been brought under the plough. This portion of the valley produces particularly fine crops, and supports a comparatively dense population.

Párbatí.—A long but (except in the rains) fordable tributary of the CHAMBAL. Rises in the Vindhyás, in lat. 22° 45′ N., long. 76° 33′ E., and after a northerly course of 220 miles past the Native States of Bhopál, Dhar, Rájgarh, Tonk, and Kotah, falls into the Chambal in lat. 25° 50′ N., long. 76° 40′ E.

Parell.—Northern suburb of Bombay; once the favourite site for the country houses of the European merchants, and still containing the residence of the Governor of Bombay. Mr. Maclean, in his *Guide to Bombay*, gives the following account of the history of this building, the only one of any special interest in the suburb:—'At the date of Fryer's visit to Bombay, about 200 years ago, a church and convent, belonging to the Jesuits, stood on the site of the present Government House at Parell. The principal establishment of the Society was at Bandora, at the other side of the Mahim Strait, where the present slaughter-houses have been erected. Fryer describes the college that stood there as "not inferior as to the building, nor much unlike those, of our universities." It was, moreover, defended like a fortress, with 7 cannon, besides small arms. The superior possessed such extensive influence that his mandates were respectfully attended to in the sur-

rounding country. When Bombay was ceded to the English, the Bandora College claimed much land and various rights in the island. On the claim being disallowed, the Jesuits threatened a resort to arms, and went so far as to assist the adventurer Cooke in his impudent attempt to raise a force for the capture of Bombay. Their crowning act of hostility, however, was the support they gave the Sídí in his successful invasion of the island in 1689-90. They were suspected of first suggesting to him the practicability of invading Bombay, and they certainly had supplied his army with provisions. As a punishment, when the war was over, all their property on the island, including the monastery and lands at Parell, was confiscated. It would appear that it was not till 1720 that the church at Parell was alienated from its original use. In that year, the Jesuits and their sympathizers were expelled from the island, and the spiritual oversight of the Roman Catholic congregations was transferred by the English governor to the Carmelites (*Bombay Quarterly Review*, iii. pp. 61-62). Bishop Heber states that the building afterwards fell into the hands of a Pársí, from whom it was purchased by the English officials about the year 1765. The lower storey of the desecrated church forms the present Government House; the upper storey has been added since the building became Government property. The outside of Parell House is plain, if not ugly; but the interior, so far as the State rooms are concerned, is handsome, the dining-room on the ground floor, and the drawing-room above, being 80 feet long, and broad in proportion. The garden at the back is spacious, and has a fine terrace, shaded by noble trees. There used to be a willow at Parell, grown from a slip cut from the tree on Napoleon's grave at St. Helena. Mr. W. Hornby (1776) was the first governor who took up his residence at Parell. The original building was enlarged and embellished by the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone (1819-27). In 1737, the Jesuits' College at Bandora, before referred to, was destroyed by the Portuguese to prevent its falling into the hands of the Marhattás, who in that year invaded Salsette.' By Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 4 miles from the Bombay terminus.

Parganás, The Twenty-four.—District of Bengal.—*See* TWENTY-FOUR PARGANAS.

Pariar.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Safipur, on the east by Unao *parganá*, on the south by Sikandarpur, and on the west by the Ganges, which separates it from Cawnpore District. A small *parganá*, with an area of 36 square miles, of which 19 are cultivated. The soil is chiefly loam and clay, and produces wheat and barley of the first quality. Watered by the Kalyáni, a small tributary of the Ganges. Pop. (1869), 15,617, viz. 15,383 Hindus and 234 Muhammadans. The principal form of tenure is *zamíndárí*. Government land revenue, £2943, or an average assess-

ment of 2s. 6¾d. per acre. Hindu tradition alleges that it was here that Sítá was abandoned by Ráma, after he had recovered her from Rávana; hence the name of the *parganá*, corrupted from the Sanskrit into Pariar. The present *parganá* was formed in 1785, out of 28 villages taken from Sikandarpur and Safipur.

Pariar.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, and headquarters of Pariar *parganá*; situated 14 miles north-east of Unao town, in lat. 26° 37′ 45″ N., and long. 80° 21′ 45″ E. Pop. (1869), 2593, viz. 2476 Hindus and 117 Musalmáns. The town is considered sacred by the Hindus, on account of its legendary association with the events of the *Rámáyana*. A great bathing fair, held on the occasion of the *Kárkik Puranmáshi*, is attended by 100,000 persons.

Párikud.—Group of islands lying to the east of the CHILKA LAKE, Bengal, which have silted up from behind, and are now partially joined to the narrow ridge of land which separates the Chilká from the sea. Salt-making is largely carried on in the Párikud islands by the process of solar evaporation. The manufacture begins at the commencement of the hot season, in the latter half of March. In the first place, a little canal is dug from the Chilká Lake, with sets of broad, shallow tanks on either side, running out at right angles from the canal in rows of four. Each tank is 75 feet square, by from 18 inches to 3 feet deep On the first day of manufacture, the brackish water of the lake is admitted by the canal into the first tank of each of the sets of rows. Here it stands for 24 hours; and as the depth of this first series of tanks is only 18 inches, evaporation goes on very rapidly. Next morning, the brine is transferred from tank No. 1 to tank No. 2 in each of the sets of rows. Tank No. 2 is 24 inches deep; and each successive one deepens by 6 inches until the brine reaches No. 4, which is 3 feet deep. The water stands for a day in each, gradually thickening as it evaporates. On the fourth day, it is transferred to tank No. 4; and on the morning of the fifth, some of the brine is ladled from that tank into an adjoining network of very shallow pools, each pool being 5 feet square by only 6 inches deep. Here it stands during the intense heat of the day. By the afternoon the manufacture is complete, and the salt is raked out of the network of shallow pools. The out-turn of a Párikud salt-working is about 15 tons the first week; and if the manufacture goes on without interruption for a fortnight, it may amount to as much as 80 tons for the 15 days. A shower of rain stops the whole process, and necessitates its being begun afresh.

Parkáil.—Mountain peak in Bashahr State, Punjab; a summit of the ridge in Kunáwár, separating the Spiti from the Sutlej (Satlaj) basin. Thornton states that it lies 6 or 7 miles north-east of the confluence of these two rivers, in lat. 31° 54′ N., and long. 77° 46′ E Elevation above sea level, 22,488 feet

Párkar.—Town in Nagar Párkar *táluk* of the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency, Sind.—*See* NAGAR PARKAR.

Parla Kimedi.—Ancient *zamíndárí* (landed estate) in Ganjám District, Madras; the largest in the District, extending over an area of 993 square miles, including 354 square miles of *maliya* or hill country. Pop. (1871), 250,978, inhabiting 47,341 houses and 1043 villages. The estate pays a *peshkash* (fixed revenue) of £8782, the proprietary income being returned at £46,500.

The *zamíndárs* claim descent from the royal house of Orissa Gajapattis (Gangavansa), and take precedence in the District. Eleven hill chiefs called *Bessozes*, and 23 smaller lairds called *Doras*, owe feudal allegiance and pay tribute to the Rájá.

The British first came into contact with the family in 1768, when Colonel Peach led a detachment against Náráyan Deo, the *zamíndár*, and defeated him at Jalmúr. In 1799, the Company temporarily assumed control of the estate for breach of engagement. Restored to the family, this difficult country was the scene of continued disturbances for many years. In 1816, it was ravaged by Pindárís; and in 1819, it was found necessary to send a special commissioner, Mr. Thackeray, to quell a rising. Again, in 1833, a field force was sent into Parla Kimedi, under General Taylor, and it was not till 1835 that peace was restored.

Latterly the *zamíndárí* has been under the Court of Wards, and has been much improved in consequence. Good roads and extended cultivation have greatly increased its value; and notwithstanding a considerable expenditure on irrigation works, there is a yearly balance in favour of revenue.

Parla Kimedi.—Chief town of the *zamíndárí* of the same name in Ganjám District, Madras; situated in lat. 18° 46′ 40″ N., and long. 84° 8′ E. Pop. (1871), 15,958.

Parlákot.—Chiefship in the extreme north-west of Bastar State, Central Provinces. Comprising 50 villages; area, 500 square miles. Chief town, Parlákot; lat. 19° 47′ N., long. 80° 43′ E.

Parnesala.—A celebrated shrine in Godávari District, Madras; situated about twenty miles from Badráchalam town.

Párola.—Town in Khandesh District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 53′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 9′ 30″ E., 24 miles east of Dhuliá, and 22 miles west of the Mhasáwár station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Pop. (1872), 12,235. Párola is a municipality, with an average income of £223. It is said to have been raised by its proprietors, Hari and Sadásiva Dámothar, from the position of a small village of 50 houses to that of a walled town. They are also said to have built the spacious fort, one of the finest architectural remains of the kind in Khandesh. It must have been at one time a

very strong place; it is surrounded by a moat, and the entrance was formerly protected by a drawbridge and large flanking towers. During the Mutiny in 1857, the proprietors proved disloyal, and their estate was confiscated, the town being taken possession of by the British Government, and the fort dismantled. A considerable trade is carried on in cattle, cotton, and grain. Post office, and dispensary.

Paron.—Native State in the Gúna (Goona) Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. The ruling family are of ancient lineage, and were formerly Thákurs of Narwár. Dáolat Ráo Sindhia deprived Madhú Sinh of Narwár of his hereditary possessions, and the latter took to plundering in Sindhia's territories. In 1818, through the mediation of the Resident at Sindhia's court, the estate of Paron and six villages were granted to Madhú Sinh under British protection, on condition of his ceasing to plunder, and promising to protect Sindhia's territory from robbers. The present Rájá, Mán Sinh, joined the mutineers in 1857, but surrendered in 1859 on condition of a free pardon and a suitable maintenance. His former possessions were consequently restored to him under guarantee. For his subsequent services in connection with the capture of the rebel Tántia Topí, he received an annual allowance of £100, as equivalent to the value of a *jágír* of one village. Paron town lies in lat. 24° 59′ N., and long. 76° 57′ E.

Parporí.—Rich and well-cultivated Chiefship attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces; comprising 35 villages. The Chief is a Gond. Principal village, Parporí, in lat. 21° 35′ N., and long. 81° 16′ E.

Parseoní.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 22′ N., and long. 79° 11′ E., 18 miles from Nágpur town. Pop. about 4000. Manufactures, coarse cloth and pottery. The weekly market supplies the hill tracts of Bheogarh. The town contains two very fine temples; and *pán* (betel-leaf) is largely cultivated in the neighbourhood.

Parshádepur.—*Parganá* in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated north of the Sái river. Area, 54 square miles, of which 28 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 33,037, viz. 30,851 Hindus and 2186 Musalmáns. Of the 60 villages comprising the *parganá*, 42 are owned by Rájputs. The tract originally formed part of the *jágír* estate of the Bahu Begam, and was constituted a separate *parganá* in 1783.

Parshádepur. — Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and headquarters of Parshádepur *parganá;* situated 20 miles from Rái Bareli town, and 1 mile north of the Sái river. Pop. (1869), 4319, viz. 2645 Hindus and 1674 Muhammadans. Five Hindu temples and 9 Muhammadan mosques. Market. Vernacular school.

Partábganj.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Fatehpur *tahsíl*, on the east by Rám Sanehi Ghát *tahsíl*,

on the south by Satrikh *parganá*, and on the west by Nawábganj *parganá*. Area, 56 square miles, or 35,751 acres, of which 24,288 acres are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 38,168, viz. 32,149 Hindus and 6019 Muhammadans. The 54 villages comprising the *parganá* are held under the following tenures:—*Tálukdárí*, 26; *zamíndárí*, 15; and *pattidárí*, 13. Intersected by the metalled road to Faizábád (Fyzábád). Five schools, 2 police posts, and a post office. Government land revenue, £6429, or at the rate of 4s. 7⅝d. per acre.

Partábgarh (*Pratábgarh*).—A British District in the Rái Bareli Division of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; situated between 25° 34 and 26° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 81° 22′ and 82° 29′ 45″ E. long. Bounded on the north by Rái Bareli and Sultánpur Districts, and on the east, south, and west by Jaunpur and Allahábád Districts in the North-Western Provinces. The Ganges, flowing from south-west to south-east, forms the western boundary line, while the Gumti at the opposite extremity marks the eastern boundary for a few miles. The District has recently undergone considerable diminution of area, by the transfer in 1869 of Salon and Parshádepur *parganás* to Rái Bareli. Prior to these changes, Partábgarh District contained an area of 1733 square miles, and a population according to the Census of 1869 of 1,109,072 souls. The present area, according to the Oudh Administration Report (1877), is 1458 square miles, and the population, 784,156. The administrative headquarters are at BELA, 4 miles from Partábgarh town.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of Partábgarh is that of a richly wooded and fertile plain, here and there relieved by gentle undulations, and in the vicinity of the rivers and streams broken into ravines. The southern portion of the District in the neighbourhood of the Ganges is perhaps more densely wooded than other parts. Barren tracts of uncultivable land, impregnated with saline efflorescence (*reh*), are met with in places, but do not extend over any considerable area. For the most part, Partábgarh is under rich and varied cultivation, dotted with neatly built villages and hamlets, which are surrounded by fine groves of mango, *mahua*, or other trees. The soil is light, but at the same time very fertile. The prevailing kind is that known as *domát*, a mixture of clay and sand in about equal parts. Where the sand largely preponderates, the *domát* degenerates into poor, sterile *bhúr*, found especially in the uplands near the Ganges, Sái and Gumti. The stiff and rich loamy soil styled *matiár* occurs chiefly in the vicinity of large swamps or *jhíls*. The one important river of Partábgarh, properly speaking, is the Sái, as the Ganges and Gumti nowhere enter the District, but only impinge on its western and eastern boundary respectively. The Sái rises in Hardoi, and after crossing Rái Bareli

District, flows through Partábgarh in an exceedingly tortuous south-easterly course, and finally falls into the Gumti in Jaunpur District. This river runs chiefly between high banks at a considerable depth below the level of the surrounding country. It is navigable in the rains, when it swells into a considerable stream; but in the hot season it runs nearly dry. It receives several tributary rivulets, both on its north and south bank; and in general the line of drainage is towards this river, which thus forms the basin of the District. There are many natural lakes or *jhíls* which in the rains measure several miles in circumference. They average about 3 feet in depth, but are practically of no use for navigation. The only mineral products are salt, saltpetre, and *kankar* or nodular limestone. The manufacture of salt and saltpetre from the saliferous tracts is prohibited by Government. Tigers and leopards are hardly ever met with in Partábgarh; but wolves still abound in the ravines and grass lands, and frequently commit depredations on the flocks of the shepherds. A reward is paid for their destruction, and their numbers are yearly diminishing. *Nílgái*, wild cattle, hog, and monkeys do much damage to the crops. Snakes are not numerous. Small game, such as hares, pea-fowl, partridges, snipe, quail, geese, and ducks, abounds.

Population.—The population of Partábgarh District, as at present constituted, after the transfer of *parganás* Salon and Parshádepur to Rái Bareli District, is returned in the Oudh Administration Report for 1876-77, at 784,156 persons, residing in 2209 villages or towns and 156,250 houses; average density of the population, 530 per square mile. Classified according to sex, there are 400,629 males and 383,527 females; proportion of males, 51·1 per cent. According to religion, there were 713,948 Hindus, 70,159 Muhammadans, and 49 Christians, of whom 7 are native converts. Of the Hindu population, about 70 per cent. are cultivators, which proportion is pretty evenly maintained throughout the District. The higher castes of Bráhmans (114,742), Rájputs (58,412), Vaisyas (12,688), and Káyasths (9188) form nearly a fourth of the total population. The Bráhmans are the most numerous caste in the District. In the Mánikpur and Bihár *parganás*, there are a great many families of spurious Bráhmans, whose ancestors belonged to the lower castes of Hindus, and were invested with the sacred thread by Rájá Mánik Chánd, a brother of Jái Chánd, the last Hindu king of Kanauj. Of the lower castes, Kurmís (95,258), Ahírs (92,622), Chamárs (81,419), and Pásis (46,166) predominate; with a good sprinkling of Muráos (26,263) and Gareriás (25,232). The Kurmís and Muráos, who are the best cultivating castes, are almost to a man agriculturists; and in regard to the number of the former, Partábgarh ranks second among the Oudh Districts. The majority of the Ahírs, Chamárs, Pásis, and

Gareriás are also cultivators. There are more Lohárs (14,828) and Lonias (14,359) in Partábgarh than in any other District in Oudh, but comparatively few of the former are engaged in agricultural pursuits. The latter, salt-makers by hereditary profession, now that their normal occupation has gone, have been forced to seek new employment, and are almost exclusively cultivators. The Muhammadans are most numerous in Mánikpur, Partábgarh, and Bihár *parganás*, and least so in Dhingwas and Rámpur; they are nearly evenly divided between agricultural and non-agricultural, the former class slightly preponderating. The most respected classes are Shaikhs (9297) and Patháns (9219). The Muhammadan converts from higher castes of Hindus number only 534. The lower classes, who for the most part pursue some distinctive trade, include the Juláha or weaver (9053), the Dhunia or cotton-corder, the Darzi or tailor and tent-maker, the Manihár or lac-bangle maker, and the Kunjra or fruiterer.

Agriculture.—There are two principal harvests in the year, the *rabí* or spring crop and the *kharíf* or autumn crop, the latter being subdivided into three minor harvests, known as *bhadoi*, *kuári*, and *aghání*, after the months in which the several crops ripen. The principal grain crop is barley, which yields an average out-turn of about 16 *maunds*, or 11⅔ cwts. per acre. Wheat, both the white and red variety, is largely grown in Partábgarh. It requires abundant irrigation, and the fields are flooded at least three times during the cold season. The average out-turn from all kinds of land throughout the District is set down as equal to 19·71 bushels per acre. Four varieties of rice are cultivated, known as *kuári dhán*, *jethi dhán*, *sáthi dhán*, and *jarhan dhán*. The principal rice-growing localities are the low-lying lands in Patti *tahsíl*, and the neighbourhood of the large *jhíls* and swamps in Kúnda *tahsíl*. The yield of the different sorts of rice varies a good deal, from 9 or 10 *maunds*, or from 6½ to 7⅓ cwts. per acre for *sáthi* rice, to double that out-turn for *jethi* rice. The other food crops are gram, peas, *arhar*, *joár*, and *bájra*, the three first being most largely cultivated. Sugar-cane cultivation has been rapidly extending of late years, and yields a greater profit than is obtained from grain crops. Poppy is cultivated under the superintendence of the Opium Department. Miscellaneous crops include tobacco of excellent quality, indigo, fibres, *pán*, etc. By far the greater portion of the cultivated area is *do-fasli* or two-crop land. The *kharíf* crop is no sooner off the ground than preparations are at once made for sowing the *rabí*. A heavy *kharíf* crop, like *joár* or *bájra*, is followed by a light spring crop, such as peas or barley. This is repeated a second year; in the third year no autumn crop will be sown, but the land will be well worked up, and prepared for wheat or sugar-cane. The number of ploughings the land requires for different crops varies very much. For instance,

wheat is held to require, on an average, 18 or 20 ploughings; tobacco, sugar-cane, peas, and barley, fifteen or sixteen ploughings; poppy, 12 ploughings; cotton, 8; and so on. Three or four ploughings are sufficient for the autumn crop. Irrigation is extensively carried on, and manure is made use of wherever procurable. Rents have steadily increased since the introduction of British rule, and still have a tendency to rise. The average rate for all varieties of land over an area of 100 villages, was found in 1868 to be 3s. 1½d. per local *bighá*, equal to ⅝ths of an English acre. Rents in kind largely prevailed prior to annexation, and were chiefly, if not entirely, levied on poor and unirrigated lands, where the produce was more or less precarious, in the proportion of one-half. Now, however, they have been almost everywhere commuted into money rents. Skilled labourers have much improved in circumstances of late years; but this has not been the case with the agricultural classes, who are paid in kind at about the same rates that prevailed under native rule. The average daily payment for out-door agricultural labour is 3 lbs. of grain for a man, and 2½ lbs. for women or children. The District is mostly held under *tálukdárí* tenure, there being 1702 *tálukdárí* villages, against 512 held either as *zamíndárí*, *pattidárí*, or *bháyáchára*.

Means of Communication, etc.—Partábgarh District is now well opened up by roads. Exclusive of 22½ miles of the imperial road connecting the military stations of Faizábád (Fyzábád) and Allahábád, which passes through Belá, the civil station, there are 342 miles of good second-class roads. These have been entirely bridged, save at four points, where the Sái, Sakrui, Pareya, and Bhakláhi respectively would require large and solid masonry bridges to withstand the force of the current in the rains. The four principal lines of country road are the following:—(1) From Belá to Rái Bareli town, running 44 miles through Partábgarh District; (2) from Belá to Guthni Ghát on the Ganges, 39 miles; (3) from Belá to Patti, 15½ miles; (4) from Belá to Badsháhpur in Jaunpur District, 21 miles, of which 20 miles lie within Partábgarh. Four large ferries are maintained on the Ganges, and 2 on the Gumti. Ferries for foot-passengers across the Sái are kept up by the *zamíndárs* in the rainy months, the stream being easily fordable at most places during eight months of the year. Wheeled carriage is scarce and difficult to procure. Great reluctance is everywhere manifested by the owners to hiring out their carts; and when it is known that troops are on the move, and that carriage will be impressed, the carts are frequently taken to pieces and concealed in houses, the bullocks at the same time being sent to a neighbouring village. Bullocks, buffaloes, and ponies afford the ordinary means of transport.

Trade and Commerce, Manufactures, etc.—Partábgarh is a great grain-exporting District. Tobacco, sugar, molasses, opium, oil, *ghí*, cattle,

sheep, hides, and horns also form important articles of export. The imports consist mainly of salt, cotton, metals and hardware, country cloth and dyes. The exports of grain in 1872 were reported at 349,000 *maunds*, value £79,000, the other items making up the total value of exports to £97,700. The imports in 1872 were valued at £40,800, cotton and salt forming the principal items. In 1873, the exports amounted in value to £105,562, of which £65,517 was returned as the value of 305,671 *maunds* of food grain; the imports in the same year amounted in value to £40,569. The principal market towns and villages are the following:—(1) Lálganj, 4 miles south of Bihár on the Allahábád road; a numerously attended bi-weekly market, with trade in cattle, English piece-goods, and country fabrics; annual value of sales, about £30,000: (2) Derwa *bázár* in Sabalgarh, a grain mart twice a week; annual sales, about £15,000: (3) Jalesarganj in Dharupur village; trade in English and country cloth, sweetmeats, grain, matting, etc.; annual value, £10,000: (4) MacAndrewganj, the *bázár* of the civil station, a thriving and rapidly increasing mart; trade in grain and cloth to the extent of £6000. Other markets are Kálákankar, Gadwára, Prithwiganj, and Nawábganj Báwan Burji. Several local fairs are held on occasions of religious festivals, at which trade is also carried on. Sugar of excellent quality is manufactured at Partábgarh town. Glass beads, bracelets, water-bottles, etc. are made at Sawánsa and a few other places in Patti *tahsíl.* The only other manufacture is that of woollen blankets woven by shepherds from the fleece of their flocks, which are bought up by petty traders from the North-Western Provinces.

Administration.—Partábgarh is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, aided by 5 or 6 Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioners, and 4 *tahsíldárs.* The total revenue, imperial and local, of the District in 1871-72, was £111,110, of which the land tax contributed £86,261. The expenditure in the same year amounted to £24,490. The District contains 13 civil and revenue, and 14 magisterial courts. For the protection of person and property, there is a regular District police, municipal police, and village watch, of a total strength of 3078 men; maintained, in 1873, at a total estimated cost in money or lands of £12,748. Education is afforded by a high school at the civil station, 3 middle-class schools, 50 village primary schools, and 1 girls' school. There is also a charitable dispensary at the headquarters town.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is healthy, with a mean range of temperature of 30° F. The average rainfall for the twelve years ending 1875 was 37·3 inches, the fall in that year being 36 inches. Of endemic diseases, intermittent fever, skin affections, and ophthalmia are the most common. In the cold season of 1868-69, the District suffered from an epidemic of small-pox, immediately followed by a

severe and general outbreak of cholera. These epidemics were rendered more virulent by the distress which resulted from the total failure of the autumn harvest of 1868 and the partial failure of the spring crops of 1869. Intermittent fever is most prevalent at the close of the rainy season, and generally disappears with the cool weather and westerly winds of November. Though primarily caused by local malaria, this disease is intensified by exposure alternately to cold, damp, and the hot sun, and by the poorer classes being unable to obtain sufficiently nourishing food.

Partábgarh (*Pratábgarh*). — *Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Partábgarh District, Oudh, lying between 25° 42′ 30″ and 26° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 81° 33′ 15″ and 82° 6′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Sultánpur and Kádipur *tahsíls*, on the east and south by Jaunpur and Allahábád Districts in the North-Western Provinces, and on the west by Patti *tahsíl*. This *tahsíl* comprises the two *parganás* of Partábgarh and Ateha. Area, 434 square miles, of which 233 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 264,420, viz. 241,130 Hindus and 23,290 Musalmáns. Average density of population, 609 per square mile; number of villages or townships, 703.

Partábgarh (*Pratábgarh*).—*Parganá* in Partábgarh District, Oudh; situated in the south-east of the District, and extending for many miles along both sides of the river Sái. Area, 355 square miles, of which 192 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 219,777, of whom 198,902 are returned as Hindus and 20,875 as Muhammadans. Of the 634 villages comprising the *parganá*, 508 are held by Sombansi Rájputs, who form the dominant caste among the population.

Partábgarh (*Pratábgarh*).—Town in Partábgarh District, Oudh; situated on the metalled road to Allahábád, 4 miles from Belá, the civil headquarters of the District, 36 miles from Allahábád, and 24 from Sultánpur, in lat. 25° 53′ 25″ N., and long. 81° 59′ 10″ E. Founded in 1617-18 by Rájá Partáb Sinh, who named it after himself. The fort built by the Rájá is still extant. It was seized by the native Government about ninety years ago, but after annexation was sold to Rájá Ajít Sinh, a relative of the ancient owner. It was of considerable size, but its outer walls and flanking works were destroyed after the Mutiny; an inner keep and little walled garden still remain. The inhabitants of the town in 1869 numbered 3743. The population, however, within municipal limits was 11,750. Municipal income (1876-77), £448; expenditure, £412; average incidence, 7¾d. per head of population within municipal limits. Six mosques and four Hindu temples. Sugar of good quality is manufactured here. Government high school.

Partábgarh (*Pratábgarh*).—Native State in Rájputána under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency, lying between 23° 14′ and 24° 14′ N. lat., and between 74° 27′ and 75° E. long.; bounded

on the north-west and north by Udáipur, on the east by part of Gwalior and the States of Jáora and Ratlam, and on the south-west by Bánswára. Estimated area, 1460 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 150,000, mostly Bhíls and other aboriginal tribes. The revenue is about £60,000, of which £20,000 is enjoyed by feudatories, and £5688 is paid as tribute to the British Government and accounted for by it to Holkar. The country is hilly; the chief crops are maize and *joár* (Holcus sorghum).

The Maháráwal of Partábgarh is a Sesodiá Rájput, descended from a junior branch of the Udáipur house. From the time of the establishment of the Marhattá power in Málwá, the Chief of Partábgarh has paid tribute to Holkar. In 1818, Partábgarh was taken under the protection of the British Government. Under the 4th article of the Treaty of Mandeswar, the British Government acquired a right to the tribute levied by Holkar in Partábgarh; but, in consideration of the political influence lost by Holkar under that treaty, it was resolved to account to him annually for the amount of the tribute, which is therefore paid over from the British treasury. The late chief, Dalpat Sinh, who succeeded to the State in 1844, was grandson of the former chief of Partábgarh, and had succeeded to the State of Dúngarpur on the deposition of Jaswant Sinh, by whom he had been adopted. On his succession to Partábgarh, he relinquished Dúngarpur. He died in 1864, and was succeeded by his son Udái Sinh, the present Maháráwal, who was born about 1846. The chief of Partábgarh receives a salute of 15 guns. The military force of the State consists of 12 guns, 40 gunners, 275 cavalry, and 950 infantry. The chief town, Partábgarh, lies in lat. 24° 2′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 52′ 15″ E.

Partábgarh (*Pratábgarh*).—Ancient fortress in the Jaoli *táluk* of Satára District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 56′ N., and in long. 73° 38′ 30″ E. In 1656, Sivají, the founder of the Marhattá power, selected this almost impregnable position, on a mountain near the source of the Koina river, as one of his principal forts; it was the capital of his possessions. The fortress, now dismantled, is seven miles south-west of Mahábaleshwar, on a summit of the Western Gháts commanding the Par Ghát, and dividing one of the sources of the Savitri from the Koina, an affluent of the Krishna. Partábgarh formed the scene of Sivají's celebrated act of treachery, which ended in the murder of the Muhammadan general, Afzul Khán, who had been sent against him by the King of Bijápur. In 1659, Sivají decoyed Afzul Khán to a personal interview by a pretended submission, the two leaders being each attended by a single armed follower. Sivají stabbed the Musalman general, and gave the signal to his ambushed army to attack the Muhammadan troops, who, bewildered by the loss of their chief, were utterly routed.

Parúr.—Town in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 24′ 20″ N., long. 79° 33′ E.; pop. (1871), 4852, residing in 549 houses. Interesting on account of the fossil beds of the 'Upper Green Sand and Gault' formation found here. These are described in vol. iv. part 1 of the *Records of the Geological Department.*

Párúr.—Town in Páravúr Subdivision, Travancore State, Madras.—*See* PARAVUR.

Párvatípur.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras; situated in lat. 18° 47′ N., and long. 83° 28′ 10″ E. Headquarters of the senior Assistant Agent, with magistrate's court, police, and post offices. A centre of trade between the hills and the plains, being at the junction of three roads from Pálkonda, Jáipur, and Vizianágaram. Pop. (1871), 8565, inhabiting 1695 houses. Párvatípur is the centre of the Belgám *zamíndárí.*

Parwán.—River of Bhágalpur District, Bengal; rising in the south-east corner of Náridgar *parganá*, not far from the source of the Dhúsan. The two streams pursue different courses, about 2½ or 3 miles apart, until their waters mingle at Sinheswarsthán, where there is a temple built to Siva Mahádeo. The spot is considered very holy; and several thousand Hindus resort to the shrine in February to pay their devotions, bringing with them small quantities of Ganges water, which they throw over the image of the god. At this place the Dhúsan loses its own name; and the mingled waters, under the name of the Parwán, flow on towards the south. The river, after a tortuous course of nearly 30 miles, forms the Sahsál swamp, the outlet from which assumes the name of the Katná, and flows into *parganá* Pharkiyá, a mile and a quarter below the triple junction of that *parganá* with Chháí and Nisankpur Kúrá. The Parwán is navigable for boats of 50 *maunds* (less than 2 tons) burthen up to the village of Mánpur, a few miles south-east of the Subdivisional headquarters of Madahpúrá.

Pasgawán.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Muhamdi *parganá*, on the east by the Gumti river, on the south by Hardoi District, and on the west by Sháhjahánpur District, from which it is separated by the Sukhetá river. Area, 121 square miles, of which 58 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 40,448, of whom 34,586 are Hindus and 5862 Muhammadans. No towns or important *bázárs.* The present *parganá* was formed as recently as 1869, by the amalgamation of the two older *parganás*, Pasgawán and Barwár. After the breaking up of the great Barwár estate, the land settlement was made with small independent *zamíndárs;* and of the 163 villages comprising the *parganá*, 142 are held by small proprietors under *zamíndárí* tenure, while 21 are *tálukdárí.* Land revenue, £6052.

Pa-sheng.—River in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British

Burma. It rises in the Arakan range, and at first is known as the Tshan-da; after an easterly course of about 40 miles, it falls into the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). The Pa-sheng drains an area of 100 square miles; its principal tributaries are the Pa-daw and the A-lún. It is navigable in the rains for a distance of 30 miles.

Pasrúr.—*Tahsíl* of Siálkot District, Punjab, lying between 32° 6′ 15″ and 32° 20′ 30″ N. lat., and between 74° 28′ 45″ and 74° 46′ 45″ E. long. Area, 539 square miles; pop. (1868), 244,997; number of villages, 563.

Pasrúr.—Ancient but decayed town in Siálkot District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 32° 16′ N., long. 74° 42′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 8527, consisting of 2180 Hindus, 5706 Muhammadans, 179 Síkhs, and 462 'others.' Once a place of greater size and consideration than at present. Traces of former prosperity remain about the town, including a tank constructed during the reign of Jahángír; a canal to supply it with water, built by Prince Dára Sheko, brother of Aurangzeb; and a bridge erected by Sháh Daulá. Situated on the Amritsar road, 18 miles south of Siálkot. Many handsome houses of Síkh gentlemen and other local notabilities. The shrine of Míra Barkhudár, a famous Muhammadan saint, is the scene of a great religious gathering during the *Muharram*. Centre of local trade; *tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, post office, school-house. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £246, or 7⅛d. per head of population (8285) within municipal limits.

Pata Cuddapah.—Suburb of CUDDAPAH TOWN, Cuddapah District, Madras. Lat. 14° 29′ 45″ N., long. 78° 53′ 30″ E.; pop. (1870), 6616, inhabiting 1820 houses.

Pátámári.—Village in Goálpára District, Assam, on the Brahmaputra, with considerable exports of jute.

Pátan.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Magráyar, Púrwa, and Panhán, on the east by Panhán and Bihár, on the south by Bhagwantnagar, and on the west by Magráyar *parganás*. Area, 11 square miles, of which 4 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 6067, viz. 5893 Hindus and 174 Muhammadans. The *parganá* comprises 15 villages, of which 12 are held under *tálukdári* and 3 under *zamíndári* tenure. The chief proprietory body are Bráhmans and Bais Kshattriyas among the higher, and Kurmís among the lower castes.

Pátan.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, and headquarters of Pátan *parganá*; situated on the banks of the small river Lon. Pop. (1869), 2373. Two annual fairs are held near the tomb of a famous Muhammadan saint, one of which, in September, is attended by as many as 70,000 persons. The holy man is supposed to exercise a beneficial influence over the insane; and on the occasions of the festival these unfortunates are brought, sometimes to the number of hundreds, and

tied up to trees opposite the tomb, where they are left all night. Village school.

Patan (or *Anhilwára Pattan*).—Chief town of the Patan Subdivision, Baroda State, Bombay; situated in lat. 23° 51′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 10′ 30″ E., on the small river Saraswati, a tributary of the Banás. Pop. (1872), 31,523, of whom about one-eighth part are Jains, who have no fewer than 108 temples. There are also extensive Jain libraries in the city, consisting mostly of palm-leaf manuscripts, which are very jealously guarded. Many remains of considerable architectural beauty are still to be seen outside the city. Anhilwára Patan is one of the oldest and most renowned towns of Guzerat. It was the capital of successive dynasties of Rájput kings from 746 to 1194 A.D.; and during the whole time of Musalmán supremacy, it maintained a position of some importance. Swords and spears are manufactured in the city, and some pottery; and silk and cotton weaving is carried on.

Patan (*Pattana*).—Town in Junágarh State, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 20° 59′ 54″ N., long. 70° 28′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 6860.

Patan (*Keshorái Pattan*).—Next to the capital, the most important village of Búndi (Boondee) State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 25° 17′ N., and long. 75° 59′ E., at an abrupt bend of the Chambal, where the river, running in a north-easterly direction, suddenly turns almost at right angles to the south-east, and, after a straight reach of 5 miles, turns back again still more abruptly to its former direction. Pop. (1878) under 4000. Keshorái Patan claims very remote antiquity, local historians affecting to trace its traditions back to the mythological period. In the present aspect of the town, however, there is little that testifies to any great age. Two ancient inscriptions alone remain. One is in a *sati* temple on the Breham Ghát, which bears date Samvat 35. The other, in an adjoining temple, is dated Samvat 152. Long before these periods, however, and before the existence of any town at all, it is said that one Parasurám built a temple here sacred to Mahádeo. This temple gradually fell into decay, but was rebuilt during the reign of Chattar Sál; to whom also is due the completion of the larger temple of Keshorái, for which the town of Patan is now famous. The foundations of this latter temple were laid during the reign of Chattar Sál's grandfather, Maháráo Ratanjí; but he died before anything more than the supporting platform, which stands close to the river bank, had been constructed. On the accession of his grandson, the work was resumed, and the temple finished as it now stands. It contains an image of Keshorái, a name for Vishnu, and attracts yearly a large crowd of worshippers. The temple has an endowment of £1000 yearly from Búndi, and £300 from Kotah. The managers and attendants are hereditary, counting now about 300 persons, the descendants of one family. The temple itself, though

large, does not possess any marked architectural beauties; and it has been so incessantly covered with fresh coats of whitewash, that it now looks not unlike a huge piece of fretwork in wax or sugar, which heat or moisture had partially melted.

Patan.—One of the chief towns of Nepál; situated in lat. 27° 38′ N., and long. 85° 17′ E., on rising ground, a short distance from the southern bank of the Bághmati, about 2 miles south-east of Khátmándú. Patan is thus described by Dr. Wright:—

'It is an older town than Khátmándú, having been built in the reign of Rájá Bír Deva in the Káligat year 3400 (299 A.D.). It is also known by the names of Yellondesi and Lálita Patan. The latter name is derived from Lálit, the founder of the city. Its general aspect is much the same as that of the capital. The streets are as narrow and dirty, the gutters as offensive, and the temples even more numerous; but it appears much more dilapidated than Khátmándú, many of the houses and temples being in ruins. The main square, however, in the centre of the town, is very handsome. On one side is the old Darbár, with a fine brazen gateway, guardian lions, and endless carvings. In front of this are monoliths, with the usual figures on them, and behind these a row of handsome old temples of every description. The parade-ground lies to the south-east of the town, the road to it passing through a suburb abounding in pigs. The parade-ground is extensive, and there are several large tanks to the west, while on the northern side stands a huge Buddhist temple of the most primitive description. This temple is merely a mound or dome of brickwork, covered with earth. There is a small shrine at each of the cardinal points, and on the top what looks like a wooden ladder. Many similar mound-temples or *chaityas* exist in and around Patan. The population of the town is said to be about 30,000.'

Patanā.—Village in Sháhábád District, Bengal, which, in the opinion of Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, was once the residence of the chief ruler of the Suar or Sivirá tribe. Sometimes called Srírámpur, from a hamlet of that name which now occupies part of the ruins to the south-west of the village. In the immediate neighbourhood of Patanā is a *linga*, surrounded by a wall and some broken images, the largest of which represents Mahávíra, or the warlike monkey. Many other remains are scattered about.

Patan Sáongí.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 19′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 4′ E., on a fertile and elevated plain by the river Kolár, 14 miles from Nágpur city. Pop. nearly 5000. Chief products—cotton stuffs and tobacco. In 1742, during the struggle between Walí Sháh and the legitimate princes, 12,000 men were massacred by the victorious party in the now ruined fort. Up to the death of the late Rájá, a troop of horse was stationed

in the town; and till lately it was the headquarters of a *tahsíl.* It has a good market-place and *sarái* (native inn).

Pataudi.—Native State under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab, lying between 28° 14′ and 28° 22′ N. lat., and between 76° 42′ and 76° 52′ 30″ E. long. Area, about 50 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 20,990; supposed gross revenue, £8000. Principal products—grain, cotton, sugar, and spices. The Rájputána State Railway from Delhi to Bandikui junction passes through the State about 40 miles south-west of Delhi. The present Nawáb of Pataudi, Muhammad Mukhtár Husáin Alí Khán, an Afghán by race, was born about 1855. The State was formed by a grant from Lord Lake in 1806 of Pataudi in perpetual *jágír* to Fáiztalab Khán, brother of the Jhajjar Nawáb. Fáiztalab Khán was severely wounded in an action with Holkar's troops, and the *jágír* was granted to him in recognition of his services. The estimated military force of the State, including police, is 119 men.

Pátgrám.—Estate in Jalpáigurí District, Bengal, comprising the police division of the same name. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in his MS. account of Rangpur, thus described it in 1809:—'It belongs to the Rájá of Kuch Behar, and contains 62 *mauzás*, or collections of villages. More than half the estate is let to large farmers, some of whom hold under leases called *upanchakí*, which are granted for a certain specified farm, and not according to a particular area; their rent cannot be increased nor their lands measured. Thirty *jotdárs* pay their rent directly to the Rájá's collector; the average rent paid by them is only 6¾d. per Calcutta *bíghá.* The people are very poor, shy, and indolent.'

Pathánkot.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Gurdáspur District, Punjab; lying between 32° 5′ 30″ and 32° 23′ 30″ N. lat., and between 75° 22′ and 75° 44′ 15″ E. long., and including a hill and plain portion.

Pathánkot.—Municipal town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Pop. (1868), 5011, consisting of 2125 Hindus, 2737 Muhammadans, 145 Síkhs, and 4 'others.' Situated in lat. 32° 16′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 42′ E., near the head of the Bári Doáb, 23 miles north-east of Gurdáspur. Terminus of the carriage road from Amritsar (Umritsur) to Dalhousie, the remaining distance of 42 miles lying through the hills, and being performed on horseback or by *dhulí.* Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £231, or 1s. 0¼d. per head of population (4507) within municipal limits.

Páthardi.—Town in Ahmednagar District, Bombay; situated in lat. 19° 10′ 25″ N., and long. 75° 13′ 31″ E., about 25 miles east of Ahmednagar town. Pop. (1872), 7117. Post office.

Pathári.—Native State in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India; adjoining the British District of Ságar (Saugor), and lying south-west of Rahatgarh. The chief,

Nawáb Abdul Karím Khán, an Afghán by race, was born about 1852. He belongs to a younger branch of the Bhopál family, being descended from its founder, Dost Muhammad. In 1807, Nawáb Haidar Muhammad Khán, the father of the present chief, was deprived of his patrimony by Sindhia; but eventually, through the mediation of the British Government, he obtained the present estate in exchange for certain villages he held in Rahatgarh. Area of Pathári, 22 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 4330; revenue, about £1200. The chief town, Pathári, lies in lat. 23° 56′ N., and long. 78° 15′ E.

Pathäriá.—Hill ranges in the south of Sylhet District, Assam. Estimated area, 47 square miles; height above sea level, 600 feet. In this tract a peculiar perfume called *agar attar* is manufactured. It is distilled from the resinous sap of the *pitákará* (Aquilaria agalocha Roxb.), and is said to be exported *viâ* Calcutta as far as Arabia and Turkey.

Pathäriá.—Village in Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 53′ N., and long. 79° 14′ E., 24 miles west of Damoh town, on the main road between Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Ságar (Saugor). Under the Marhattás, an Amíl lived at Pathäriá, which appears to have once been a much larger place. Government school, dispensary, police station, and travellers' bungalow.

Pa-thway.—Revenue circle in the Pan-ta-naw township of Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 8275; revenue, £3077.

Patiála.—A Native State in the Punjab, under the political superintendence of the Punjab Government. Patiála belongs to the group known as the cis-Sutlej States; and is situated between 29° 23′ 15″ and 30° 54′ N. lat., and between 74° 40′ 30″ and 76° 59′ 15″ E. long. Area, 5412 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 1,586,000; supposed gross revenue, £457,239. The State is divided into two portions, of which the larger is situated in the plain south of the Sutlej (Satlaj), while the other portion is hill country stretching up to Simla, which latter place formerly belonged to Patiála, but has been exchanged for territory in the District of Barauli. Within the confines of the State are situated a slate quarry near Simla, and a lead mine near Subáthu; the latter is worked by a company, and yields about 40 tons of ore per *mensem*, containing from 16 to 72 per cent. of lead. There are also marble quarries and copper mines in Narnaul. The usual cereals are produced in the tracts under cultivation.

History.—The ruling families of Patiála, of Jínd (Jheend), and of Nábha, are called 'the Phulkian houses,' because they are descended from Phul, a Chaudhari, or agricultural notable, who in the middle of the 17th century founded a village in the Nábha territory called after his name. The Chiefs of Jínd and Nábha are descended from Tiloka, the

eldest son of Phul; the Mahárájá of Patiála is descended from Ráma, the second son, and is a Síkh of the Sidhu Ját tribe.

Like almost all the Ját tribes, the Sidhus are of Rájput origin, and trace their descent from Jaisal, a Bhatti Rájput, and founder of the State and city of Jáisalmír, who was driven from his kingdom by a successful rebellion in 1180 A.D. From Jaisal descended Sidhu; from Sidhu descended Saughar, who aided Bábar at the battle of Pánipat, and whose son Bariám was made by the victor a Chaudhari, or headman of a District, responsible for its revenues. Phul was descended from Bariám, and as a boy received the blessing of Gúrú Har Govinda, the sixth Síkh *gúrú*, who said of him, 'His name shall be a true omen, and he shall bear many blossoms.' From the Emperor Sháh Jahán he obtained a *farmán* granting him the *chaudhriyat* so long held by his ancestors. He died in 1652 A.D. From him are descended not only the Chiefs of Jínd and Nábha, but also those of the Laudhgharia families, and the families of Bhadaur and Malod,—in all, thirteen houses; and these were at one time equals in point of rank.

Ala Sinh, son of Ráma and grandson of Phul, succeeded in defeating the Nawáb Sayyid Asad Alí Khán, the imperial general commanding in the Jálandhar *doáb*, at the battle of Barnala, and obtained many other successes over the Bhattís and other foes. He built a fort at Patiála, and, after being utterly defeated, with other Síkh leaders, at the battle of the Barnala in 1762 by Ahmad Sháh Duráni, he submitted to the terrible Afghán invader, and received from him the title of Rájá. After the departure of Ahmad Sháh, however, Rájá Ala Sinh put himself at the head of his Síkhs, and boldly attacked the Afghán Governor of Sirhind, whom he defeated and killed. The city of Sirhind was never rebuilt, and is held accursed to this day by the Síkhs; but a considerable portion of the population was removed to the rising town of Patiála. Ahmad Sháh, when he again invaded India, not only forgave Ala Sinh for his attack on Sirhind, but actually received him into favour, on the payment of a subsidy; and, on the return of the Duráni monarch, Ala Sinh accompanied him as far as Lahore. Ala Sinh died at Patiála in 1765, having firmly established the foundations of this the most important of the cis-Sutlej States.

Ala Sinh's successor was Amar Sinh, who obtained from Ahmad Sháh Duráni, in 1767, the title of Rájá-i-Rájgán Bahádur, and the insignia of a flag and a drum. About the year 1772, he was threatened with an attack of the Marhattás under Janka Ráo, and sent off all his treasures and family jewels to Bhatinda; and subsequently he was in great danger from a rebellion of his brother Himmat Sinh, who seized the fort of Patiála; but he was finally successful in defending himself from all his enemies, and largely increased his power at the expense of his neighbours and of the crumbling Delhi Empire. He died in 1781, and

for a long time afterwards the chiefship of Patiála was in feeble hands, and its importance waned before the growing power of Ranjít Sinh at Lahore.

The terrible and unprecedented famine of 1783 did much to cripple the power and resources of Patiála. Mr. Lessel Griffin says of this famine (*Punjab Rájás*, 1870, p. 57):—'The year previous had been dry, and the harvest deficient; but in 1783 it entirely failed. The country was depopulated, the peasants abandoning their villages, and dying in thousands of disease and want. But little revenue could be collected; the country swarmed with bands of robbers and dacoits; and the state of anarchy was almost inconceivable. The neighbouring chiefs began to seize for themselves the Patiála villages, and all who dared threw off Patiála authority, and declared themselves independent.' The Ráj of Patiála was, however, saved by the courage and energy of the Diwán, and of some of the ladies of the ruling family, which has always been famous for the talents of its female members. These formed an alliance with the Marhattás, and by their aid subdued all those who had attacked the Ráj; but they received little gratitude from the Rájá Sáhib Sinh, and finally died in disgrace or exile. During the concluding years of the century, the State suffered much from wars with the famous adventurer George Thomas; but at last the Síkhs, with the aid of Perron and Bourquin, were able to drive him off. After the capture of Delhi by the British forces under General Lake in 1803, and the subsequent submission of the Marhattás under the treaty of Sirji Anjengaon, the English became the paramount power in this part of India; and when, in 1807 and 1808, the Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh seemed to be entertaining designs on the cis-Sutlej country, an appeal was made to the English Governor-General for protection.

This was eventually accorded; and a treaty was made with Ranjít Sinh in 1809, in which he engaged not to commit or suffer any encroachments on the possessions or rights of the cis-Sutlej chiefs. In the Nepál war of 1815, when the Gúrkhas were expelled from the hill country above the Punjab, the Patiála chief aided the British Government with troops, and received, in recognition of his services, an accession to his territory in the hill country. Again, when the Síkh army invaded the cis-Sutlej States in 1845-46, the Mahárájá of Patiála cast in his lot with the British, and obtained, for his services during the campaign, the gift of an additional portion of territory. During the Mutiny of 1857, Mahárájá Narendra Sinh aided the British Government by furnishing an auxiliary force which proceeded to Delhi, and kept open the communication on the Grand Trunk Road. He also helped the Government with money. For these services, he received from the British Government the Narnaul division of the Jhajjar territory, besides other rewards. Narendra Sinh was succeeded in 1862 by his son Mohendra Sinh, who

died in 1876, and was succeeded by his infant son, Rajendra Sinh, the present Mahárájá.

The Mahárájá of Patiála furnishes a contingent of 100 horse for general duty. He is entitled to a salute of 17 guns. The military force consists of about 2750 cavalry, 600 infantry including police, 31 field and 78 other guns, and 238 artillerymen.

Patiála.—Capital of the Patiála State, Punjab. Lat. 30° 20′ N., long. 76° 25′ E. Founded in 1752 by Sardár Ala Sinh.—*See* PATIALA STATE.

Patiáli.—Ancient town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 4324. Mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*. Situated on the old high bank of Ganges, on a mound of ancient débris. Ruins of fort built by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori. Decaying trade; no manufactures. Rebels defeated here by Colonel Seaton at beginning of 1858.

Patkolanda.—Ancient chiefship attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, 35 miles south-west of Sambalpur. Pop. (1870), 1095, chiefly agricultural, residing in 6 villages; area, 8 square miles, the whole of which is cultivated for the most part with rice. The chief is a Gond.

Patná.—Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 24° 17′ 15″ and 27° 29′ 45″ N. lat., and between 83° 23′ and 86° 46′ E. long. Area, according to Parliamentary Abstract (1878), 23,726 square miles. The population consisted in 1872 of 13,122,743 persons, of whom 11,601,136 were Hindus, 1,514,423 Muhammadans, 5594 Christians, 1 Buddhist, and 1589 aborigines; number of persons per square mile, 553. It comprises the Districts of PATNA, GAYA, SHAHABAD, DARBHANGAH, MUZAFFARPUR, SARAN, and CHAMPARAN, all of which see separately. The Division is bounded on the north by Nepál; on the east by Bhágalpur and Monghyr; on the south by Lohárdagá and Hazáribágh Districts; and on the west by the Districts of Mirzápur, Gházípur, and Gorakhpur in the North-Western Provinces.

Patná. — A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 58′ and 25° 42′ N. lat., and between 84° 44′ and 86° 5′ E. long. Area, 2101 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,559,638 souls. Revised returns, corrected up to 1st January 1880, give the area at 2072 square miles. Bounded on the north by the river Ganges, which separates it from Sáran, Muzaffarpur, and Darbhangah; on the east by Monghyr; on the south by Gayá; and on the west by the river Són, which separates it from Sháhábád District. The chief town is PATNA, which adjoins on the east the administrative headquarters at BANKIPUR, and is situated on the south or right bank of the Ganges.

Physical Aspects.—Patná District is, throughout the greater part of its extent, a dead level; but towards the south, the ground rises into hills.

The soil is for the most part alluvial; and the country along the bank of the Ganges is peculiarly fertile, producing the finest crops of all descriptions. The general line of drainage is from west to east; and high ground along the south of the Ganges forces back the rivers flowing from the District of Gayá. The result is that, during the rains, nearly the whole interior of the District south of a line drawn parallel to the Ganges, and 4 or 5 miles from its bank, is flooded. There are no forests or jungles of any extent, but fine groups of trees are found in many places. In the south-east, the District is, for some 30 miles, divided from Gayá by the RAJAGRIHA HILLS, which consist of two parallel ridges running south-west, with a narrow valley between, intersected by ravines and passes. These hills, which seldom exceed 1000 feet in height, are rocky and clothed with thick low jungle. They possess a special interest for the antiquary, as containing some of the earliest memorials of Indian Buddhism. To the north of this ridge rises an isolated hill, which, being composed of the same materials as the Rájágríhá Hills, may be considered as an outlying spur of that range; it has been identified by General Cunningham with the 'Kapotika' of Hiouen Thsang. Hot springs are common on the Rájágríhá Hills. The chief rivers of Patná are the GANGES and the SON, which form, as has been said, the northern and western boundaries of the District respectively. The total length of the Ganges along the boundary of Patná District is 93 miles. The Son first touches the District near Mahíbalípur village, and flows in a northerly direction for 41 miles, till it joins the Ganges; during this part of its course it receives no tributaries. The only other river of any consequence is the Púnpún, which, though described as one of the navigable rivers of Bengal, is in this District chiefly remarkable for the number of petty irrigation canals which it supplies with water. So much of the river is thus diverted that only a small portion of its water ever reaches the Ganges. The course of the stream is north-easterly until it reaches Naubatpur, where it takes a bend to the east, crossing the Patná and Gayá road about 10 miles from Bánkipur, and joins the Ganges at Fatwá. The total length of the river in this District is stated to be 54 miles; about 9 miles from its junction with the Ganges, it is joined by the Múrhar. Great changes have from time to time taken place in the course of the Ganges, and the point at which the Son joined this river was once several miles east of its present position (*see* GANGES). Large game is not abundant in Patná District, there being no jungles except on the Rájágríhá Hills. Among these hills, bears are found. Wolves and jackals are common, hyænas are sometimes seen, and the small Indian fox is not unknown; a leopard was killed near Behar town in 1876. Of smaller game, duck, quail, and ortolan are abundant; and partridges and wild geese are also found.

History.—The history of Patná District is so intimately interwoven with that of PATNA CITY that it is unnecessary to anticipate what the reader will find in the historical sections of that article. The District possesses special interest, both for the historian and the archæologist. PATNA CITY has been identified with Pátaliputra (the Palibothra of Megasthenes), which is supposed to have been founded six hundred years before the Christian era by Rájá Udáyaswa, a contemporary of Gautama, the founder of the Buddhist religion; and in the south-eastern portion of the District are found some of the earliest remains of Indian Buddhism. Here, too, is situated the town of Behar, the early Muhammadan capital which gave its name to the Province; and throughout the District are places which were visited and have been described by the Chinese travellers, Fa-Hian and Hiouen Thsạng. Patna is derived from *patana*, literally '*the* town'; and Behar is simply the vernacular form of the Sanskrit *vihára*, a Buddhist monastery.

In the modern history of the District, two events of special interest to Englishmen stand prominently out, and demand separate notice. The one is known as the Massacre of Patná (1763), and the other is the outbreak of the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857. The former occurrence, which may be said to have sealed the fate of Muhammadan rule in Bengal, was the result of a quarrel between Mír Kásim, at that time Nawáb of Murshidábád, and the English authorities. The Nawáb, after much negotiation, had agreed to a convention which was also accepted by Mr. Vansittart, the Governor, that a transit duty of only 9 per cent. should be paid by Englishmen, which was far below the rate exacted from other traders. This Convention, however, was repudiated by the Council at Calcutta, and Mír Kásim, in retaliation, resolved to abandon all duties whatever on the transit of goods, and to throw the trade of the country perfectly open—a measure still less agreeable to the Company's servants. In April 1763, a deputation, consisting of Messrs. Hay and Amyatt, was despatched from Calcutta to Monghyr, where the Nawáb had taken up his residence; but it was now too late for negotiation. Numerous disputes had arisen between the *gumáshtás* of the English and the Muhammadan officers; and there was much hot blood on both sides. An occurrence which happened at Monghyr while Messrs. Hay and Amyatt were there, hastened the rupture. Mír Kásim seized and detained some boat-loads of arms which were passing up the Ganges to Patná, on the ground that the arms were destined to be used against himself. On being informed of this on the 24th June, Mr. Ellis, the Company's factor at Patná, immediately ordered his sepoys to occupy that city, which was done the following morning. In revenge, the Nawáb sent a force in pursuit of Mr. Amyatt, who had been allowed to return to Calcutta, Mr. Hay having been detained as a hostage. Mr. Amyatt was overtaken and

murdered near Kásimbázár. In the meantime the English sepoys, who had been plundering the city, were driven back to the factory by the Muhammadans at Patná, a large number of them being killed. The remainder, only about 300 out of 2000 men, after being besieged for two days and nights, fled in their boats to the frontier of Oudh, where they ultimately laid down their arms. They were then brought back to Patná, to which place had been conveyed Mr. Hay from Monghyr, the entire staff of the Kásimbázár factory, who had also been arrested at the first outbreak of hostilities, and some other prisoners. As soon as regular warfare commenced, however, Mír Kásim's successes came to an end. He was defeated in two pitched battles by Major Adams—at Gheriá on the 2d August, and at Udhá-nálá (Oodey-nullah) on the 5th September. These defeats roused him to exasperation, and on the 9th September he wrote to Major Adams: 'If you are resolved to proceed in this business, know for a certainty that I will cut off the heads of Mr. Ellis and the rest of your chiefs, and send them to you.' This threat he carried out, with the help of a Swiss renegade Samru (whose original name had been Walter Reinhardt), on the evening of the 6th October. Mr. Ellis and others, according to a contemporary letter, were decoyed one by one out of the room where they were drinking tea at seven o'clock, and instantly cut down. The remainder took alarm, and defended themselves as best they could with bottles and plates, their knives and forks having been already removed. About 60 Englishmen were thus murdered, their bodies being thrown into a well in the compound of the house in which they were confined. It is said that 200 Englishmen were killed at this time throughout Bengal. On the news of the massacre reaching Calcutta, a general deep mourning was ordered for the space of fourteen days, and minute-guns were fired from the fort and the fleet. A *lákh* of rupees (£10,000) was offered for the person of Mír Kásim, and £4000 for Samru. The subsequent war with the Wazír of Oudh, which was prolonged till May 1765, was to some extent occasioned by the refusal of the Wazír to surrender these persons, who had placed themselves under his protection. Mír Kásim is said to have died, in great indigence, at Delhi.

Samru took refuge with a succession of new masters, and was ultimately presented with the *jágír* of Sardhána in Meerut District, where he died in 1778, leaving as his widow and heir the notorious Begam Samru. This lady endeavoured in her old age to make amends by charities for a long life of violence. In 1834, she devoted £15,000 to the foundation of a Clergy Fund and Poor Fund; and her name now stands first in Archdeacon Pratt's 'Endowments of the Diocese of Calcutta.' The litigation connected with her property was not finally settled till more than a third of a century after her death.

The other important event in the modern history of the District is

the outbreak of the Mutiny at Dinápur, the military station attached to Patná city. For a full account of the events connected with the outbreak, the reader must be referred to the history of the period; only a very brief narrative can be given here. The three Sepoy regiments at Dinápur in 1857 were the 7th, 8th, and 40th Native Infantry, regarding whom General Lloyd, commanding at Dinápur, wrote expressing his confidence. They were accordingly not disarmed; but as the excitement increased throughout Behar, and stronger measures seemed in the opinion of the Commissioner, Mr. Tayler, to be necessary, the General, while still apparently relying on the trustworthiness of the men, was unwilling to disregard the remonstrances of the European residents, and in July made a half-hearted attempt at disarming the Sepoys. The result was that the three regiments revolted and went off in a body, taking with them their arms and accoutrements, but not their uniforms. Some took to the Ganges, when their boats were fired into and run down by a steamer which was present, and their occupants shot or drowned. But the majority were wiser, and hastened to the river Son, crossing which they found themselves safe in Sháhábád, a friendly country, with nothing to oppose them but a handful of civilians, indigo-planters, and railway engineers, and a few Síkh mercenaries, who might or might not be faithful to their employers.

The story of what took place in Sháhábád will be found in the article on SHAHABAD DISTRICT. The news that the rebels, headed by Kunwár (or Kuár) Sinh, the natural leader of the Rájputs of Behar, had surrounded the Europeans at Arrah, reached Bánkipur about the same time that the Commissioner was informed of the assassination of Major Holmes and his wife at Sagaulí, in Champáran, by his regiment of irregular horse, in whom he had rashly placed implicit trust. An attempt was made to rescue the Europeans at Arrah, but ill-luck attended the effort. A steamer, which was sent on the 27th up the river from Dinápur, stuck on a sandbank. Another steamer was started on the 29th; but the expedition was grossly mismanaged. While there was abundance of food on board, the men were left fasting. They were landed at the nearest point to Arrah at about 7 P.M.; and though the men were tired and hungry, they were pushed on till they fell into an ambuscade about midnight. The commander of the expedition, Captain Dunbar, was speedily shot down. The enemy were concealed in a mango grove, while the European troops, marching on a raised causeway, were terribly exposed. All was soon in confusion. When morning dawned, a disastrous retreat had to be commenced by the survivors of this ill-fated expedition. The enemy were all round them, the retreat became a rout, and had not the ammunition of the insurgents run short, hardly an Englishman would have escaped. As

it was, out of the 400 men who had left Dinápur, fully half were left behind; and of the survivors, only about 50 returned unwounded. But disastrous as was the retreat, it was not all disgraceful. Individual acts of heroism saved the honour of the British character. Two volunteers, Mr. M'Donell and Mr. Ross Mangles, both of the Civil Service, besides doing excellent service on the march, made themselves remarkable by acts of conspicuous daring. The former, though wounded, was one of the last men to enter the boats. The insurgents had taken the oars of his boat and had lashed the rudder, so that though the wind was favourable for retreat, the current carried the boat back to the river bank. Thirty-five soldiers were in the boat, sheltered from fire by the usual thatch covering; but while the rudder was fixed, the inmates remained at the mercy of the enemy. At this crisis, Mr. M'Donell stepped out from the shelter, climbed on to the roof of the boat, perched himself on the rudder and cut the lashings, amidst a storm of bullets from the contiguous bank. Strangely enough, not a ball struck him; the rudder was loosened, the boat answered to the helm, and by Mr. M'Donell's brilliant act, the crew were saved from certain destruction. Mr. Ross Mangles' conduct was equally heroic. During the retreat, a soldier was struck down near him. He stopped, lifted the man on to his back, and though he had frequently to rest on the way, he managed to carry the wounded man for 6 miles till he reached the stream. He then swam with his helpless burden to a boat, in which he deposited him in safety. Both these civilians afterwards received the Victoria Cross as a reward for their services.

Population.—Several early estimates have been made of the population of Patná District; among them, one by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton in 1807, which is interesting as corresponding in a remarkable degree with the results obtained by the Census of 1872. He estimated the population of nine police circles, which nearly correspond with the present area of the District, at 1,308,270 souls. In 1857, it was estimated at 1,200,000; and a later calculation reduced this figure to 900,000. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,559,638 persons, dwelling in 3412 villages and 269,814 houses; average density, 742 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·62; houses per square mile, 128; persons per village, 457; persons per house, 5·8. The pressure of the population on the soil is greater in Patná than in any District of Bengal Proper, except the metropolitan Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás and Húglí; and is very little less than in the adjacent District of Sáran. Classified according to sex, the number of males is 761,877, and of females, 797,761; proportion of males, 48·8 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years old—males, 270,483, and females, 240,403: above 12—males, 491,394, and females, 557,358. The ethnical division of the

people is given as follows:—Non-Asiatics (mostly British), 1630; mixed races (Eurasians), 590; Asiatics, 1,557,418. The purely aboriginal element is very scantily represented, the total number of persons belonging to aboriginal tribes being returned at only 429. Of semi-Hinduized aborigines, there are 215,149, including 84,900 Dosádhs, the ordinary labouring class of Behar. Of high-caste Hindus, there are 39,878 Bráhmans and 60,079 Rájputs. Ranking next after these two castes are the Bábhans, who are very numerous throughout the Patná Division, and number in this District 116,714. Their origin is much disputed. They claim in Patná to be *Sarwariá* Bráhmans, and they are also called Bhuinhár, and *Zamíndárí* or military Bráhmans. Among the lower castes, the most numerous are the Goálás or Ahírs, the great herdsman class, of whom there are 179,848; and the Kurmís, an agricultural caste, who number 165,463. The total number of Hindus in the District who do not recognise caste is 4240, of whom 2082 are Vaishnavs. Grouped together on the basis of religion, the Hindus number 1,363,291, or 87·4 per cent. of the total population; the Muhammadans, 192,988, or 12·4 per cent.; while the Christian community consists of 2700 persons, of whom the great majority are Europeans, including the troops at Dinápur,—480 are native converts. The Wahábís form the most interesting section of the Musalmán community. They are a numerous body, among whom are said to be included a few wealthy traders, though the majority belong to the lower classes. Patná was first visited by Sayyid Ahmad, the leader of the Wahábí movement in India, about the year 1820. The Patná Wahábís were involved in treasonable practices in 1864-65; eleven persons were arrested and sentenced to transportation. For the Wahábí movement and State Trials, see my *Indian Musalmáns*, 3d ed. p. 105, etc.

Municipal towns in Patná with over 5000 inhabitants each:—PATNA (pop. 158,900), BEHAR (44,295), DINAPUR NIZAMAT (27,914), DINAPUR Cantonment (14,170), FATWA (11,295), BARH (11,050), MUKAMA (10,715), MUHAMMADPUR (6089), BAIKANTHPUR (6088), MANER (5326), and KHAGAUL (5257); total urban population, 301,099, leaving 1,258,539 as the rural population of the District. Detailed accounts of the above-mentioned towns will be found under their respective names. Patná city, in which the whole interest and importance of the District, and, indeed, of the Division, centres, is, after Calcutta, the largest river-mart in Bengal. It forms a busy changing-station, where the piece-goods, salt, and miscellaneous manufactures of Europe which come up from Calcutta by rail are transferred into country boats to be distributed throughout the neighbouring tracts, and where the agricultural produce of a wide area is collected for despatch to the seaboard. Reference has already been made to the historical interest of the city, and to its identification with the ancient

Pátaliputra. The civil station of Bankipur and the military cantonment of Dinapur immediately adjoin the city of Patná proper. Among the numerous places of interest in the District may be mentioned:—Rajagriha or Rájgir, the site of the former capital of the ancient kingdom of Magadha; the hills of the same name, with their numerous Buddhist remains; Girivak, a place full of archæological interest; and Sherpur, the scene of a large fair,—all of which see separately.

Agriculture.—Rice, which forms the staple of the District, is divided into two great crops—the *kartíká* or early rice, sown broadcast in June or July, and reaped in October or November; and the *aghání* or winter rice, sown after the commencement of the rains, and cut in November or December. The *boro* or spring rice is also cultivated to a limited extent, being sown in November or December, and reaped in April or May. By far the most important of these is the *aghání* crop, of which 46 varieties are named. This rice is sown broadcast on land which has been previously ploughed three or four times, and after a month or six weeks, when the seedlings are about a foot high, they are generally transplanted; the crop requires irrigation. Among the other principal crops of the District, are wheat and barley, *khesárí*, gram, peas, cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, a little indigo and mustard, several other oil-producing plants, and poppy. The last-named crop is one of the most important in the District, and will be referred to in detail in another section of this article (*infra*). All the poppy grown in the Province of Behar is manufactured at Patná city; and the area cultivated with poppy in the Patná Opium District, which is almost conterminous with the Magisterial jurisdiction, amounted in 1874-75 to 23,563 acres. The out-turn in that year was nearly 259 tons; average produce per acre, 24 lbs. 9 oz. Wages are low in Patná, as compared with Bengal generally. Coolies are paid at the rate of 3d. a day; agricultural labourers are generally paid in grain, representing a money wage of about 1d. or 1½d. a day; smiths and carpenters earn from 3¾d. to 6d. a day. Prices are said to have increased very much during the last twenty or thirty years, but the early figures are not available. The price of the best cleaned rice in 1870-71 was 6s. 10d. a cwt., and of common rice, 4s. 1d. The rent of early rice lands producing also a second crop varies from 8s. to 12s. 9d. an acre; that of late or winter rice lands, which produce in general one crop only, from 9s. 6d. to 19s. an acre. All lands are irrigated, wherever possible; rotation of crops is not practised, except in the case of sugar-cane, which is never grown on the same land in two successive years.

Natural Calamities.—Patná is subject to blights, floods, and droughts. Blights occur seldom, and on a small scale. Floods are caused by the overflowing of the Ganges and the Són; they are of frequent occurrence, but usually cause only partial damage. In 1842

and 1869, however, inundations caused extensive loss. The District was affected by the famine of 1866, but not to any serious extent; the maximum price of the best cleaned rice in that year was 15s. per cwt., and of common rice, 9s. 6d. Long-continued drought during the rainy season, followed by an almost total loss of rice in the winter harvest and absence of rain when the spring crop was being sown, should, according to an official statement made in 1871, be considered as a warning of impending famine. If paddy were to sell in January or February at from 3s. 6d. to 4s. 3d. per cwt., it would be an indication of the approach of famine later in the year. There are abundant facilities for the importation of grain in case of distress.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District centres in Patná city, which is, as has been already stated, next to Calcutta, the largest river-mart in Bengal. Its central position at the junction of three great rivers, the Son, the Gandak, and the Ganges, where the traffic of the North-Western Provinces meets that of Bengal, gives it great natural advantages. It is also conveniently situated for the purpose of transport, either by river or railway, having a river frontage during the rains of from 7 to 8 miles, and in the dry months of 4 miles. The trade statistics will be found in the article on PATNA CITY. The total length of District and Provincial roads in Patná is 454 miles; total annual expenditure on all roads under the Department of Public Works, £9607. The East Indian Railway traverses the whole length of the District, entering it at Barhiyá station, and leaving it at the Son bridge, a distance of 86 miles. During the scarcity of 1873-74, siding lines were laid down at Fatwá, Bárh, and Mukáma, to assist in the transport of grain. Of these, the one at Mukáma still remains, but the others have been taken up. Several newspapers are published at Patná, the most important being the *Behar Herald*, published weekly, and conducted by the native pleaders of the Patná bar.

Opium Manufacture.—Patná is one of the two places in British India where opium is manufactured. The cultivation of the poppy is confined to the large central Gangetic tract, about 600 miles in length and 200 in breadth, which is bounded on the north by Gorakhpur, on the south by Hazáribágh, on the east by Dinápur, and on the west by Agra. This tract is divided into the two agencies of Behar and Benares, the former being presided over by an agent stationed at Bánkipur, and the latter by an agent at Gházípur; both agencies are under the control of the Board of Customs, Salt, and Opium, in Calcutta. The Behar Agency is the larger and more important of the two, sending into the market about treble the quantity of the drug turned out at Benares. The poppy cultivated is exclusively the white variety (Papaver somniferum album), and the crop requires great attention. The ground having been carefully prepared, the seed is sown broadcast in

November, and by February the plant is generally in full flower, having reached a height of from 3 to 4 feet. Towards the middle of that month, the petals are stripped off, and four or five days after their removal, when the capsules have attained their utmost development, the collection of the juice commences—a process which extends from about the 20th of February to the 25th of March. A detailed account of the cultivation of the plant and the manufacture of the drug would occupy more space than can be here given, but the reader will find the subject exhaustively dealt with in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xi. pp. 146-154, where the processes of testing and examination, and the usual methods of adulteration, are described. The amount of produce from various lands differs considerably. Under very favourable circumstances of soil and season, the out-turn per acre may be as high as 41 lbs. of standard opium (*i.e.*, containing 70 per cent. of pure opium and 30 per cent. of water), paid for at the rate of 5s. per lb.; but the average is from 21 to 27 lbs. per acre. The opium is made up into cakes weighing about 4 lbs., and containing about 3 lbs. of standard opium. These cakes are packed in chests (40 in each), and sent to Calcutta for exportation to China. The price which they fetch varies every year; the average for the five years ending 1874 was £133, 10s. per chest, the cost as laid down in Calcutta being £38, 10s. The variations in price were formerly excessive, but the Government is now careful to regulate the supply according to the demand.

Administration.—It is difficult to compare the revenue and expenditure of Patná for different years, because not only do the balance-sheets contain many items of account and transfer, but the changes which have taken place in the constitution of the District render comparison misleading or impossible. The net revenue in 1870 was £230,998, and the civil expenditure, £72,228. In 1877-78, the revenue amounted to £253,707. The land tax forms by far the most important item of revenue, amounting in 1877-78 to £146,564, or 57 per cent. of the total. Subdivision of estates has been carried out to a remarkable extent. In 1790, there were 1232 separate estates on the rent-roll of Patná District as then constituted, held by 1280 registered proprietors or coparceners paying revenue direct to Government; the total land revenue in that year amounted to £43,343. In 1800, the number of estates had already increased to 1813, the proprietors to 1976, and the land revenue to £50,280. In 1850, when the area of the District had been considerably increased, there were 4795 estates and 25,600 registered proprietors; the land revenue amounted to £121,352, or an average payment of £25, 6s. 2d. from each estate, and of £4, 14s. 9d. from each proprietor or coparcener. In 1866, the Subdivision of Behar, containing 796 estates, was attached to Patná; and in 1869, 19 estates were transferred from Patná to Tirhut. Including the net total

of 777 new estates obtained by these changes, the number of estates on the rent-roll of the District in 1870-71 amounted to 6075; the number of registered proprietors had increased to 37,500, and the land revenue to £150,798, or an average payment of £24, 16s. 4d. from each estate, and of £4, 0s. 5d. from each proprietor. Allowing for the increase in the size of the District by the addition of the Behar Subdivision, the number of estates has quadrupled since 1790; the land revenue has more than trebled; and where there was formerly one proprietor, there are now probably twenty. There is reason to believe that the increase in the value of each estate during the same period has in all cases been large, and may in some instances amount to more than fifty times the estimated rental of 1790. For police purposes, the District is divided into 15 *thánás* or police circles. The regular police consisted in 1877 of 1086 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £13,488. In addition to these, there was in that year a municipal force of 385 men, costing £5538, and a village watch of 3344 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £8703. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 4815 officers and men, or 1 man to every 0·45 square mile of the area or to every 324 of the population. The total cost of maintaining this force was estimated at £27,729, equal to a charge of £13, 4s. per square mile of area or 4¼d. per head of population. There are 4 jails in the District, which contained in 1877 a daily average of 457·40 prisoners. The number of Government and aided schools in the District in 1856-57 was 12, with 583 pupils; in 1860-61, the number of such schools was 10, and of pupils, 515; and in 1870-71, there were 23 such schools, attended by 1530 scholars. Since that year, education has progressed rapidly, owing principally to Sir George Campbell's system of grants-in-aid to primary schools. In 1874-75, there were, exclusive of Patná College, 309 Government and aided schools, with 9003 pupils; and in 1877-78, the number of such schools was 816, attended by 16,396 pupils. The Patná College was founded in 1862, and is the only institution for superior instruction in the whole of Behar. The number of pupils on the rolls in 1873-74 was 92, and the total expenditure on the College in that year amounted to £3809, of which £3286 was paid by Government, and the remainder, viz. £523, was contributed by fees, etc. The total cost of each student in that year was £57, 14s., of which the Government paid £49, 16s. For administrative purposes, Patná is divided into 4 Subdivisions, and for fiscal purposes, into 21 *parganás*.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Patná is considered remarkably healthy. The prevailing winds are east and west, in almost equal proportion; both winds are hot and parching. The average annual rainfall is 35·66 inches. The prevailing endemic diseases of the District are

reported to be cholera in and about the city of Patná, and stone in the bladder, chiefly among the Goálá caste. Small-pox and fever are also prevalent. There are 5 charitable dispensaries in the District.

Patná.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Patná District, Bengal, lying between 25° 12′ 30″ and 25° 39′ N. lat., and between 84° 44′ and 85° 19′ E. long. Area, 620 square miles; villages, 1371; houses, 92,132. Pop. (1872), 522,627, of whom 448,270, or 85·8 per cent., were Hindus; 73,149, or 14 per cent., Muhammadans; 689, or 0·1 per cent., Christians; and 519 of other religious denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 48·6 per cent.; number of persons per square mile, 843; villages per square mile, 2·21; persons per village, 381; houses per square mile, 149; persons per house, 5·7. This Subdivision consists of the six police circles of Patná municipality, Patná, Bánkipur, Naubatpur, Masaurhi, and Pálíganj. In 1870-71, it contained 6 magisterial courts, a general police force of 1064 men and a village watch of 1183 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £26,582.

Patná City (known to the natives as *Azímábád*). — Chief city of Patná District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 37′ 15″ N., and long. 85° 12′ 31″ E., on the right or south bank of the Ganges; and adjoining on the east BANKIPUR, the civil station and administrative headquarters of the District. As regards population, Patná is the sixth city of India, containing, according to the Census of 1872, 158,900 inhabitants, of whom 78,028 were males and 80,872 females. The Hindus number 59,537 males and 59,855 females—total, 119,392; the Muhammadans, 18,194 males and 20,535 females—total, 38,729; the Christians, 188 males and 314 females—total, 502; 'others,' 109 males and 168 females—total, 277. In 1871, the gross municipal income was £9738, and the gross expenditure, £9334, 10s.; the rate of taxation being 9 *ánnás* and 9 *pies*, or 1s. 2⅝d., per head of the population. In 1876-77, the municipal income was £10,059, and the expenditure, £9514.

Early History.—The following section on the early history of Patná city is based upon General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, vol. i. pp. 452-454 (London, 1871). Patná has been identified with Pátaliputra, which, in spite of Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton's opinion to the contrary, is undoubtedly the same town as Palibothra, mentioned by the Greek historian Megasthenes, who came as ambassador from Seleucus Nicator to the court of Sandracottus or Chandragupta, at Pátaliputra, about the year 300 B.C. The foundation of the city is attributed by Diodorus to Herakles, by whom he may perhaps mean Balarám, the brother of Krishna; but this early origin is not claimed by the native authorities. According to the *Váya Purána*, the city of Pátaliputra, or Kusumapura, was founded by Rájá Udáyáswa, the grandson of Ajáta Satru. This Ajáta Satru was the contemporary of

Gautama, the founder of the Buddhist religion, who died about 543 B.C. According to the Buddhist accounts, when Buddha crossed the Ganges on his last journey from Rájágríhá to Vaisáli, the two ministers of Ajáta Satru, King of Magadha, were engaged in building a fort at the village of Pátali, as a check upon the ravages of the Wajjians, or the people of Vriji. At that time, Buddha predicted that the fort would become a great city. Upon this evidence, General Cunningham concludes that the building of Patná was begun then, but finished later, in the time of Udáya, about 450 B.C. According to the Hindu chronologies, Udáya was the thirty-seventh king of Magadha, dating from Sahadeva, who was contemporary with the great war of the *Mahábhárata*. The thirteenth in succession from Udáya was Chandragupta, who was reigning at Pátaliputra when Megasthenes, whose account of the city has been preserved by Arrian, visited the city. He says that the distance of Palibothra from the Indus is 10,000 stadia, that is, 1149 miles, or only 6 miles in excess of the actual distance. He proceeds to describe Palibothra as the capital city of India, on the confines of the Prasii, near the confluence of the two great rivers Erannoboas and Ganges. The Erannoboas, he says, is reckoned the third river throughout all India, and is inferior to none but the Indus and the Ganges, into the last of which it discharges its waters. Now Erannoboas is the Greek form of Hiranya-báha, which has been identified with the Son; and the confluence of this river was formerly much nearer Patná than now. Megasthenes adds that the length of the city of Palibothra was 80 stadia, the breadth 15; that it was surrounded by a ditch 30 cubits deep; and that the walls were adorned with 570 towers and 64 gates. According to this account, the circumference of the city would be 190 stadia, or 25¼ miles. Strabo, Pliny, and Arrian call the people Prasii, the Greek corruption of Palásíyá or Parásíyá, the men of Palása or Parása, which is an actual and well-known name for Magadha, derived from the *palás* tree (Butea frondosa). The next description that we have of Patná is supplied by Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese pilgrim, who entered the city after his return from Nepál, about 20th February 637 A.D. At that time the kingdom of Magadha was subject to Harsha Varddhana, the great king of Kanauj. It was bounded on the north by the Ganges, on the west by Benares, on the east by Hiranya Párvata or Monghyr, and on the south by Kirana Savarna or Singbhúm. Hiouen Thsang informs us that the old city, called originally Kusumapura, had been deserted for a long time and was in ruins. He gives the circumference at 70 *li*, or 11⅔ miles, exclusive of the new town of Pátaliputrapura. Little is known of its mediæval history. In the early years of Muhammadan rule, the governor of the Province resided at the city of Behar. During Sher Sháh's revolt, Patná became the capital of an independent State, which was afterwards reduced to subjection by

Akbar. Aurangzeb made his grandson Azím Governor, and the city thus acquired the name of Azímábád. The two events in the modern history of Patna city, namely, the massacre of 1763, and the mutiny of the troops at Dinápur cantonments in 1857, have been fully described in my account of PATNA DISTRICT.

Description of the City.—Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in his MS. account of Patná city (1810), includes the whole of that part of Patná *parganá* which was under the jurisdiction of a *kotwál* and 15 *darogahs*, who were appointed to superintend the police of the 16 wards (*mahállas*) into which this area was divided. Each of these wards lay partly within the town; but some of them also included part of the adjacent country, consisting chiefly of garden land, with some low marshy ground that intervenes. The city of Patná, taken in this sense, includes the suburb of Bánkipur on the west, and Jafar Khán's garden on the east, an extent of nearly 9 miles along the bank of the Ganges. The width, from the bank of the Ganges, is on an average about 2 miles; so that the whole circumference includes an area of about 18 square miles. The city proper within the walls is rather more than a mile and a half from east to west, and three-quarters of a mile from north to south. It is very closely built, many of the houses being of brick; the majority, however, are composed of mud with tiled roofs, and very few are thatched. There is one fairly wide street, running from the eastern to the western gate, but it is by no means straight or regularly built. Every other passage is narrow, crooked, and irregular; and it would be difficult to imagine a more unattractive place. Still, every native who can afford it has a house in this quarter. In the dry weather the dust is beyond belief, and in the rains every place is covered with mud, while in one quarter there is a large pond which becomes very offensive as it dries up. The fortifications which surround the city have long been neglected, and are wretched to the last degree. The natives believe that they were built by Azím, the grandson of Aurangzeb; but an inscription on the gate, dated 1042 A.H., attributes the erection of the fort to Firoz Jang Khán. There are hardly any striking buildings; and a view of the town, except from the river-side, where some European houses are scattered along the bank, is decidedly mean. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton states that the only public works, except those dedicated to religion, were the Company's opium stores, a granary, and a few miserable brick bridges. The Roman Catholic church, in the middle of the city, was the best-looking building in the place. None of the Muhammadan mosques or Hindu temples was worthy of notice; some of the former were let to be used as warehouses. The number of houses in the whole city, as estimated by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, amounted to 52,000; of which 7187 were of brick, 11,639 of two storeys, with mud walls and tiled roofs; 53 with thatched roofs; 22,188 were

mud huts, covered with tiles, and the remainder were mud huts covered with thatch. The population he estimated at 312,000, or just double the present number, on an area twice as large.

One of the most curious buildings in Patná is the old Government Granary, or Golá, a high dome-shaped storehouse. This structure, consisting of a brick building in the shape of a bee-hive, with two winding staircases on the outside, which have been ascended on horseback, was erected in 1786 as a storehouse for grain. It was intended that the grain should be poured in at the top, there being small doors at the bottom to take it out. The walls are 21 feet thick. The following inscription is on the outside:—'No. 1.—In part of a general plan ordered by the Governor-General and Council, 20th of January 1784, for the perpetual prevention of Famine in these Provinces, this Granary was erected by Captain John Garstin, engineer. Compleated (*sic*) the 20th of July 1786. First filled and publickly closed by———.' The storehouse never has been filled, and so the blank in the inscription still remains. During the scarcity of 1874, a good deal of grain, which if left at the railway stations might have been spoilt by the rain, was temporarily stored here. In times of famine, proposals are still made by the native press to fill the Patná Golá. But the losses from damp, rats, and insects, render such a scheme of storing grain wasteful and impracticable. The Golá is usually inspected by visitors on account of the echo, which is remarkably perfect.

The Patná College is a fine brick building, at the west end of the city. Originally built by a native for a private residence, it was purchased by Government and converted into courts for the administration of justice. In 1857, the courts were removed to the present buildings at Bánkípur; and in 1862, the College was established in its present place.

Proceeding farther eastwards, for about 3 miles, we arrive at the quarter called Gulzárbágh, where the Government manufacture of opium is carried on. The opium buildings are all on the old river bank, and are separated from the city by a high brick wall. In the neighbourhood are two small temples, which appear to be of great antiquity. One is used by Muhammadans as a mosque, and the other by Hindus.

Beyond Gulzárbágh lies the city proper. The western gate is, according to its inscription, 5 miles from the Golá, and 12 from Dinápur. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton's remarks on the state of the city, with some modifications due to improved conservancy arrangements, are applicable to its present condition. South of the city, in the quarter called Sádikpur, a market has been made on the ground formerly occupied by the Wahábí rebels; but it is not much used by the inhabitants. Opposite to the Roman Catholic church is the grave where the

bodies of Mír Kásím's victims were ultimately deposited. It is covered by a pillar of uncouth form, built partly of stone and partly of brick. The present European graveyard lies to the west of the city, just without the confines of Bánkípur. The chief Muhammadan place of worship is the monument of Sháh Arzání, about the middle of the western suburb. He died here in the year of the Hijra 1032, and his shrine is frequented both by Muhammadans and Hindus. In the month of Zikad, there is an annual fair held on the spot which lasts three days, and attracts about 5000 votaries. Adjacent to the tomb is the Karbalá, where 100,000 people attend during the *Muharram* festival. Close by is a tank dug by the saint, where once a year some 10,000 people assemble, and many of them bathe. The only other place of Muhammadan worship at all remarkable is the monument of Pír Bahor, which was built about two hundred and fifty years ago. The followers of Nának have a place of worship of great repute, called the Har-mandir, which owes its celebrity to its having been the birthplace of Govind Sinh, the last great teacher of the sect. In spite of the antiquity of Patná, the total absence of ancient edifices is not to be wondered at, for quite modern buildings fall into decay as soon as they are at all neglected. Chahal Satun, the palace of the Behar viceroys, which in 1760 was in perfect preservation, and occupied by a king's son, could in 1812 be scarcely traced in a few detached portions retaining no marks of grandeur. In the same year, the only vestige to be found of a court of justice, which had been erected in 1728, was a stone commemorating the erection, dug up in 1807, when a police office was about to be erected on the spot. Many gardens in and about Patná are cultivated with roses, for distilling rose-water; and some of them cover a third of an acre in extent.

Trade.—The principal business quarters of the city, proceeding from east to west, are:—Márúfganj, Mánsúrganj, Kilá, the Chauk, with Mircháiganj, Mahárájganj, Sádikpur, Alábakhshpur, Gulzárbágh, and Colonelganj. The following paragraphs are condensed from a memorandum prepared in the Bengal Secretariat:—

In the District of Patná, the principal mart is Patná city, a place of considerable importance as a commercial depôt. Its central position at the junction of three great rivers, the Son, the Gandak, and the Ganges, where the traffic of the North-Western Provinces meets that of Bengal, and another line of trade branches off to Nepál, gives it in this respect great advantages. It is conveniently situated for the purpose of transport either by river or railway, having a river frontage during the rains of from 7 to 8 miles, and in the dry months of 4 miles.

Mr. M. Rattray, the Salt Superintendent at Patná, who was deputed during the early months of 1876 to collect trade statistics of Patná

city, has furnished an elaborate Report on the subject, showing the export and import trade, the places of shipment and destination, and the route taken by each kind of trade. The following paragraphs are derived from Mr. Rattray's Report.

The city proper comprises the large business quarters of (1) Márúfganj, (2) Mánsúrganj, (3) the *Kilá*, (4) the *Chauk*, with Mircháiganj, (5) Mahárájganj, (6) Sádikpur, (7) Alábakhshpur, (8) Gulzárbágh, (9) Colonelganj, and other petty *bázárs* too numerous to mention, extending westward as far as the civil station of Bánkipur. The mercantile portion of the city may be said to commence at Colonelganj, which is situated a short distance west of Gulzárbágh, and is the centre of a large trade in oil-seeds and food grains. From here the other marts run eastward as far as the Patná branch line of railway, immediately adjoining which is Márúfganj, by far the most important of any of the marts in the city.

The influx of goods into Márúfganj, Colonelganj, Gulzárbágh, and the *Kilá* (in respect of cotton), is from north Behar, the North-Western Provinces, and Bengal, with which these marts possess direct and easy water communication, and thus command a far larger supply than the inland marts of Mánsúrganj, Mahárájganj, Sádikpur, and Alábakhshpur, or any of the other petty *bázárs* remote from the river bank. The trade of these latter is more intimately concerned with the produce of the Districts of Patná, Gayá, and Sháhábád, which transmit large supplies of oil-seed and food grain by means of carts and pack-bullocks. Oil-seeds are disposed of wholesale to the few large export merchants of Márúfganj; the supply of food grain, which consists principally of rice, is sold retail in the *bázárs* for local consumption.

The principal imports are cotton goods, oil-seeds, salt, saline substances (*khári*, *sájjí*, etc.), sugar (refined and unrefined), wheat, pulses, gram, rice, paddy, and other cereals.

The import of European cotton manufactures amounts to the large total in money value of Rs. 2,855,374, and the import of native manufactures to Rs. 30,653. Of silk cloths, considering the size and wealth of the city, the value appears to be comparatively small, viz. Rs. 130,401. There is a large import of gunny-bags (673,419); and it is said that about two-thirds of these are re-exported with grain.

Irrespective of these imports, large quantities of salt, indigo seed, and various other kinds of merchandise are imported by rail, by merchants who have no agents or business connection in the city, and are residents of some other District. These articles are loaded into boats direct from the goods-sheds, and cannot be considered as forming a part of the regular import trade of the city. In a similar manner, there are considerable exports of goods which have no connection with any

of the business houses in the city, but are landed into waggons direct from boats.

By far the largest importing mart is Márúfganj, the merchants of which place may be said to possess a monopoly of the oil-seed trade, for their imports amount to no less than 728,237 *maunds*, or nearly two-thirds of the entire quantity imported into Patná. In respect to other staples also, this mart shows a large importation. Refined sugar amounts to 36,501 *maunds*. Mr. Rattray was informed by a respectable merchant of the city that, since the opening of the Jabalpur railway, a large portion of the produce of the North-Western Provinces, which used to be consigned to Patná, is now despatched by that line to Bombay.

The next mart of importance is Mánsúrganj, lying immediately south of Márúfganj. Being more of an inland mart, the supplies of Mánsúrganj are drawn for the most part from Patná District and other Districts to the south.

Colonelganj, a river-side mart, stands next in order, with imports brought almost wholly by boat from the Districts of North Behar and from Bengal. Other smaller marts for oil-seeds and cereals are Sádikpur and Mahárájganj.

Omitting the imports into the numerous petty *bázárs*, there remains the central business quarter of the *Chauk*, connected with which is Mircháiganj; and farther east the *Kilá*, also known as the cotton mart, for it imports 35,871 *maunds* of cotton out of a total of 38,271 *maunds* for the whole city. All these marts have a distinct trade of their own.

The importance of the *Chauk* consists in the variety and value of its imports. The principal import is cloth, of which a considerable trade is carried on by the Márwárís. European cotton goods, chiefly longcloth, to the value of Rs. 1,804,250 for the *Chauk*, and of Rs. 932,000 for Mircháiganj, are said to have been imported during the year 1875-76. The whole of this came by rail.

Before entering into an explanation of the figures, it is necessary to explain the particular character of the import trade of the city, which alone can account for the heavy imports by river. There are scarcely twenty persons in the city to whom the term 'merchant' can be strictly applied—that is, wholesale dealers with headquarters in the city and agencies at out-stations, who carry on an import and export business entirely on their own account. The truth is that the bulk of the so-called merchants are, properly speaking, merely commission agents; and the general practice is for *bepárís* to bring merchandise to these agents, at a storehouse, termed an *arat*, where the grain is sold, the agent or *aratdár* merely receiving a certain percentage. In this manner, a considerable import trade passes through the hands of the *aratdárs* into those of the wholesale exporting merchants. It is said that nine-

tenths of the oil-seeds and food grains, when brought into the city, are deposited in some *arat*, where they are taken over by the *aratdár* on his own account at the then prevailing rates. Taking the trade as a whole, it may be laid down that most articles are passed on through the city from one mart to another. Thus, to take the important staple of oil-seeds, large quantities are landed at Colonelganj, where they are purchased by Mahárájganj merchants, who in their turn sell to merchants of some other mart, and so on till the goods finally reach the hands of the exporting merchant for despatch to Calcutta.

Possessing, as the city does, great advantages in the way of water communication, it is not surprising to find the imports by river much in excess of those by rail and by road. Importers of goods, to whom time is of little consequence, naturally select water carriage as being cheapest and most convenient; and there are of course certain classes of goods, such as bamboos, large and small, timber, firewood, hay and straw, rattans, mats and *golpattá*, which, from their bulky nature and comparatively small value, will not admit of any other mode of conveyance.

A very elaborate and interesting statement, enumerating no fewer than 86 places from which the Patná imports are derived, and giving the quantities received from each, is supplied by Mr. Rattray in the Report already referred to. A full condensation of that statement will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xi. pp. 163-169.

The export trade, with the exception of oil-seeds and salt, is comparatively small, the most important article of export being oil-seeds, of which no less than 1,146,852 *maunds* were exported in 1875-76. The trade in this staple is in the hands of about a dozen merchants. Two European agencies in the city export between them more than half the above quantity. Salt to the extent of 105,329 *maunds*, not quite half the imports, is the next most important item.

The railway has been very successful in attracting to itself the bulk of the export traffic. The total despatched by this route amounted to 1,105,659 *maunds*, the larger proportion of which consisted of oil-seeds, 979,047 *maunds*.

The total exports of such articles as are shown by weight, amounted to 1,525,827 *maunds* for the city, or nearly half as much as the imports; of which oil-seeds account for 1,146,852 *maunds*, and salt, 105,329 *maunds*. Apart from these exports, there is a sort of indirect export trade by no means inconsiderable, chiefly in cotton, spices, English piece-goods, cocoa-nuts, and tobacco, regarding which the merchants were unable to supply statistical information. By 'indirect' exports are meant goods purchased daily in small or large quantities by the *mahájans* and *baniás* of the interior of Patná District and of other Districts of the Division, which unquestionably do form a part of the

export trade of the city. It is impossible to state, even approximately, the quantity thus exported, but it is known to be considerable. Amongst other articles of export may be mentioned 200 *maunds* of tobacco despatched to Bombay, and 250 *maunds* to Calcutta. This is prepared tobacco for smoking, for which Patná is noted. The remaining exports from Patná are unimportant.

The grand total weight of goods (shown in *maunds*) imported in 1875-76 was 3,166,856, and of exports, 1,525,827.

Patná Canal.—Canal in Patná District, Bengal; branches off from the Eastern Main Canal in Gayá District, about 4 miles from the village of Bárun, where the Son is crossed by an anicut or weir, which diverts the water into the Eastern and Western Main Canals. The Patná Canal is designed to irrigate the country lying to the east of the Son. It is 79 miles in length, of which 36 miles lie within Patná District, and it commands an area of 780 square miles, or 449,200 acres, irrigated by water conveyed by distributaries. The course of the canal from its commencement is, in general, parallel with that of the SON; but shortly after entering Patná District, it bends to the east, following an old channel of the Son, and joins the Ganges at Díghá, a village situated between Bánkipur and Dinápur. By the close of the administrative year, 31st March 1875, the earthwork of the Patná Canal was nearly completed; of the sixteen bridges, six had been opened for traffic, and the remainder were in a forward state; most of the waste-weirs were finished.—*See* SON CANALS.

Patná. — Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 5′ and 21° N. lat., and between 82° 45′ and 83° 40′ E. long. Bounded on the north and west by the Borásámbar and Khariár chiefships, on the south and east by the Feudatory States of Káláhandí and Sonpur. Pop. (1872), 98,636 (of whom 66,833 were Hindus), residing in 893 villages or townships and 22,048 houses. Area, 2399 square miles, 550 of which are cultivated; while of the portion lying waste, 950 are returned as cultivable. The country is an undulating plain, rugged and isolated, with ridges of hills crossing it here and there, and shut in on the north by a lofty irregular range. The soil for the most part is light and sandy. The principal rivers are the Tel, Ong, Suktel, and Sundar. Patná was formerly the most important of all the Native States attached to Sambalpur District, and the head of a cluster of States known as the *Athára Garhját*—'The Eighteen Forts.' The Máháràja traces his descent through thirty-one generations to a race of Rájput princes of Garh Sambar, near Máinpurí. Hitambar Sinh, the last of that line, having offended the King of Delhi, was killed, and his family dispersed. One of his wives, however, found her way to Patná, then represented by a cluster of eight *garhs*, and there gave birth to a boy, who was called Rámái Deva. The chief of

Kolágarh adopted the child, and eventually abdicated in his favour. Until this time, the custom had been for the Rájá of each *garh* to take it in turn to rule for a day over the whole; but when Rámái Deva's day arrived, he put the chiefs of the other seven *garhs* to death, and governed the eight *garhs* with the title of Máháràja. He further strengthened his position by a marriage with the daughter of the ruler of Orissa. During the three centuries which elapsed between the reigns of Rámái Deva and Báijal Deva, the tenth of the line, Patná obtained considerable accessions of territory. The States of Khariár and Bindrá Nawágarh on the west, Phuljhar and Sárangarh to the north, and Bámail, Gángpur, and Bámrá to the north-east, were all made tributary; while Rairákhol, with a tract of land on the left bank of the Mahánadi, was annexed. A fort was erected in the Phuljhar State; and Chandrapur *parganá* on the left bank of the Mahánadi was wrested from the ruler of Ratanpur. Narsinh Deva, the twelfth Máháràja, ceded to his brother Balrám Deva all his territories north of the river Ong. Balrám Deva then founded Sambalpur, which soon afterwards, by the acquisition of territory in every direction, became the most powerful of all the hill States. Meanwhile, Patná declined; and though for some generations it continued to receive a certain allegiance from the surrounding States, it sank by degrees into significance, and is now one of the poorest of all the hill States. Some old temples on the banks of the Tel, and others at Rání Jhiriá, built, it is said, a thousand years ago by a pious Rání of the Chauhán caste, alone record the past greatness of Patná. Rice forms the staple product, but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also grown. For 30 miles round the town of Patná, a vast forest extends, containing *sál, sáj, bíjesál, dháurá*, ebony, and other woods, with small clearings here and there. These jungles are infested with tigers, man-eaters being common; wild buffaloes, bears, and leopards are also numerous. Patná has no manufactures of importance. Iron-ore is found in many parts, but no mines are regularly worked. The only means of communication are a few bullock or pony tracks across the hills.

The supposed gross revenue of Patná is returned at £2500, and the amount of tribute is £60. In 1871, however, the State was taken under direct management, and is now in a very flourishing condition. In 1876-77, the collections amounted to £4740, the expenditure to £2858, and the balance to nearly £2300, including the surplus of the previous year. The temperature is that of the plains generally, in the cold months being often as low as 45° F. at daybreak, and rising by mid-day to about 80° F. The hot season lasts from April to the middle of June, when the thermometer sometimes reaches 110° F. in the shade. Though the climate has a bad reputation, the inhabitants

appear robust and healthy. Cholera frequently breaks out, especially in the larger villages.

Patri.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 7 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £900; tribute of £523 is paid to the British Government.

Pátri.—Town in Ahmedábád District, Bombay, and a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, in lat. 23° 11′ N., and long. 71° 50′ E., 58 miles west of Ahmedábád city. Pop. (1872), 6320. Post office.

Pattapatti (*Peltai*).—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated in lat. 8° 43′ 20″ N., and long. 77° 43′ 10″ E. Pop. (1871), 6643, residing in 2578 houses.

Patti.—Agricultural town in Lahore District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 17′ N., long. 74° 54′ E.; pop. (1868), 6718, consisting of 2126 Hindus, 4205 Muhammadans, 99 Síkhs, and 288 'others.' Distant from Lahore city 38 miles south-east.

Patti.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sultánpur and Kádipur *tahsíls*, on the east by Jaunpur District, on the south by Allahábád District, and on the west by Partábgarh *tahsíl.* Area, 468 square miles, of which 217 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 223,173, viz. 206,633 Hindus and 16,540 Hindus. The most thinly populated *tahsíl* in the District, the average pressure being 477 persons to the square mile. Number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 816. This *tahsíl* comprises the 2 *parganás* of Patti and Dalíppur, which are now joined together, and returned as one; of the 816 villages, 698 are held under *tálukdárí*, and 117 under *mufrád* tenure, while 1 belongs to Government. Of the 698 *tálukdárí* villages, 683 are held by Báchgotí Rájputs in 10 estates; the remaining 15 composing a single estate held by Dirgbansis.

Pattikonda. — Headquarters of the Pattikonda *táluk*, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras. Lat. 15° 28′ N., long. 77° 4′ E.; pop. (1871), 4383, inhabiting 958 houses. Memorable as the scene of Sir Thomas Munro's death, from cholera, in July 1827.

Patuákhálí.—Subdivision of Bákarganj District, Bengal; comprising the 4 police circles of Bauphal, Mirzáganj, Gulsákhálí, and Khálsákhálí. Area, 1457 square miles. Pop. (1872), 418,747, of whom 338,243, or 80·8 per cent., were Muhammadans; 76,397, or 18·2 per cent., Hindus; 4004, or 1 per cent., Buddhists; 62 Christians; and 41 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 52·6 per cent.; average density of population, 287 per square mile; average number of persons per village, 582; houses per square mile, 33; inmates per house, 8·6. Headquarters at the village of Patuákhálí or Lankátí; lat. 22° 20′ 35″ N., long. 90° 22′ 45″ E.

Pátúr.—Town in Akola District, Berar; situated in lat. 20° 27′ N., and long. 69° 59′ E., 18 miles south of Akola town; on the high road to Básim, just under the hills up which a pass leads to the Bálághát. Pop. (1867), 6011, consisting largely of Musalmáns. On the low hillside east of the town is a rock-hewn Buddhist monastery. Two other shrines, one Muhammadan, the other Hindu, are much resorted to. Weekly market; annual fair in January or February; police station and post office.

Paumben.—Town in Madura District, Madras.—*See* PAMBAM.

Paunár.—Ancient town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 47′ N., and long. 78° 42′ 30″ E., on the river Dhám, 5 miles north-east of Wardhá town. Pop. (1866), 2441, chiefly agricultural. Contains a ruined fort in a strong position, and one of the large stone gateways of the old wall yet remains. Paunár forms the scene of some curious legends, which will be found in the article on WARDHA DISTRICT. It was formerly the chief seat of the Musalmán Government east of the river Wardhá; and under the Marhattás became the headquarters of a *kamávisdárí* or revenue District. In 1807, the Pindáris plundered the town.

Pauní.—Town in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 48′ N., and long. 79° 40′ E., 32 miles south of Bhandára. Pop. (1872), 8973. The town is surrounded on three sides by high ramparts of earth, in some parts crowned with stone battlements, and by a ditch; along the fourth side, to the east, runs the scarped bank of the Waingangá. Two or three handsome stone *gháts* lead down to the river, which supplies the water used for domestic purposes; that drawn from the wells being generally brackish. The dense jungle in and around the town renders the place very unhealthy; and this fact, with the consequent removal of many of the wealthier inhabitants to Nágpur, has caused Pauní to decay. A considerable trade still takes place, however, in cotton cloth and silk pieces; and the finer fabrics manufactured at Pauní are exported to great distances. The town contains many old shrines, but the great temple of Murlídhar, though comparatively modern, is the only one of repute. Pauní has a large and flourishing government school, police station, post office, and small rest-house for travellers on the bank of the river.

Paurí.—Administrative headquarters of Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 8′ 10″ N., long. 78° 48′ 15″ E. Residence of the Assistant Commissioner.

Pavugada.—*Táluk* in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Area, 456 square miles, of which 159 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 66,250, of whom 64,822 are Hindus, 1323 Muhammadans, 104 Jains, and 1 Christian; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £8756, or 1s. 9d. per cultivated acre. Soil sandy, and abounding with *talpargis*

or sub-surface springs of water. Crops—rice, *rági*, *navane*, and horse-gram; exports—iron and rice.

Pávugada (or *Pámugonda*, 'Snake-hill').—Municipal village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore; situated in lat. 14° 6′ 23″ N., and long. 77° 19′ 8″ E., 60 miles east of Chitaldrúg town, at the southern base of a hill of the same name, 3026 feet above sea level; headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 2091; municipal revenue, £27; rate of taxation, 3d. per head. The residence of a line of *pálegárs*, whose founder lived towards the close of the 16th century. The existing fortifications were erected by Haidar Alí in 1777.

Páwagarh. — Hill fort in the Pánch Mahals District, Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 31′ N., and long. 73° 36′ E., about 28 miles east of Baroda. An isolated hill surrounded by extensive plains, from which it rises abruptly to the height of about 2400 feet, being about 2800 feet above the level of the sea. To the east lie the vast Bária forests, and the hill seems to form the boundary between the wild country to the east and the clear open plain that stretches westward to the sea. On the east side of the north end of the hill are the remains of many beautifully executed Jain temples; and on the west side, overlooking a tremendous precipice, are some Musalmán buildings of more modern date, supposed to have been used as granaries. The southern extremity is more uneven, and from its centre rises an immense peak of solid rock, towering to the height of about 250 feet. The ascent to the top of this is by a flight of stone steps, and on its summit stand a Hindu temple and a Musalmán shrine. The constant cool winds that prevail during the hot-weather months make the hill at that season a favourite resort for the European residents of Baroda.

Páwangarh.—Hill fort in Kolhápur State, Bombay. Lat. 16° 48′ N., long. 74° 10′ 15″ E. The fort was stormed by a British force on 1st December 1844.

Pawáyan.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 589 square miles, of which 360 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 261,494; land revenue, £29.178; total Government revenue, £29,835; rental paid by cultivators, £32,098; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 6⅝d.

Pawáyan.—Town in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1872), 6106, consisting of 4592 Hindus and 1514 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 28° 4′ 10″ N., and long. 80° 8′ 25″ E., 4 miles south of the Bhainsi river, and 17 miles north of Sháhjahánpur town.

Páwí Mutándá.—Chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces, 16 miles east of Chámursí; comprising 35 villages. Supplies excellent iron-ore; and the forests yield much teak, ebony, and *bíjesál*.

Páyanghát.—The valley of the Púrna river, in Berar, lying between

20° 27′ and 21° 10′ N. lat., and between 76° 10′ and 78° E. long., and running eastward between the Ajanta range and the Gawilgarh Hills like a long backwater or inlet, varying in breadth from 40 to 50 miles, and becoming wider towards the east. The surface of the valley rises and descends by very long low waves, the intermediate valleys lying north and south. At a point just beyond Amráoti, this formation is broken by a chain of low hills crossing the plain in a north-westerly direction, and changing the watershed from west to east. The Páyanghát contains the best land in Berar—the deep rich black alluvial soil, of almost inexhaustible fertility, called *regar*. Here and there are barren tracts, where the hills spread out their skirts far into the plain; or where a few outlying flat-topped hills, often crowned with huge cairn-like mounds, stand forward beyond the ranks to which they properly belong. Except the Púrna, which is the main artery of the river system, scarcely a stream in this tract is perennial. The Páyanghát is very scantily wooded, except near the villages close under the hills. In the early autumn it is one sheet of cultivation, but in the hot season the landscape is desolate and depressing.

Payidipála.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 38′ N., long. 82° 47′ E.; pop. (1871), 7797 (almost all agriculturists), inhabiting 1460 houses.

Peddápúr (*Peddápúr*).—Headquarters town of Peddápúr *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 17° 4′ 55″ N., long. 82° 10′ 35″ E.; pop. (1871), 9202, inhabiting 2010 houses. Sub-magistrate's and District Munsíf's courts; post office, bungalow, and good market. Peddápúr was formerly the headquarters of a large *zamíndárí*.

Peerpointee.—Town in Bhágalpur District, Bengal.—*See* PIRPAINTI.

Pegu (*Pai-gú*).—Division of the Province of British Burma, comprising the Districts of RANGOON, THUN-KHWA, BASSEIN, HENZADA, THARAWADI, PROME, and THAYET-MYO, all of which see separately (also BRITISH BURMAH and PEGU TOWN). Area, 26,979 square miles; pop. (1872), 1,662,058.

Pegu (*Pai-gú*).—North-eastern township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 49,655; gross revenue, £27,116. The north-western portion is mountainous and forest-clad; towards the south, the hills gradually sink into undulating ground, and end in level tracts partially cultivated with rice. The principal river is the PEGU, which flows first south-east and then south-west through the township. Its valley has an elevation of 1500 feet, and is intersected by deep ravines. The country north of the valley on both banks of the river is covered with dense evergreen forest. The centre of the township is traversed by the Paing-kyún, an artificially widened and deepened creek, communicating on the east with the Tsit-toung. A good road runs from Pegu to Rangoon, and another is being constructed from

Pegu to Toung-ngú, to replace the old 'Royal road' made by the Peguan king, Ta-beng-shwe-ti, in the 16th century. The villages are connected by good fair-weather tracks. The township is divided into 6 revenue circles; the chief town is PEGU. This township comprises the old Burmese jurisdictions of Pegu on the north-east, Zaing-ga-naing on the north-west, and Zwai-bún on the south.

Pegu.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The western portion is well cultivated, but the east is an open plain, submerged during the rains. Bamboos abound. Pop. (1877-78), 13,847; gross revenue, £5368.

Pegu.—Headquarters town of Pegu Division and township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 17° 20′ N., and long. 96° 30′ E., on the Pegu river, 20 miles west of the Tsit-toung. Pop. (1878), 4337. Contains court-houses, police stations, a market, post office, and a Government school. Modern Pegu lies close to the river banks. The ancient town was founded in 573 A.D., by emigrants from Tha-htún, headed by the two princes Tha-ma-la and Wie-ma-la, and was once the capital of the Talaing kingdom; the sovereigns of which at one time reigned over the whole valleys of the Tsit-toung and of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), including Toung-ngú and Prome,—conquered Ava and the sea-coast as far as the Pak-chan, and successfully invaded Siam and Arakan. Across the river, and connected with the Pegu quarter by a substantial wooden bridge, over which runs the Rangoon and Toung-ngú road, is Zaing-ga-naing. Inside the old walls stands the great Shwe-hmaw-daw pagoda, an object of greater veneration to the Talaings than even the Shwe Dagon at Rangoon. The town is laid out with broad and well-metalled streets crossing each other, generally at right angles. The market is on the bank of the river, a little above the bridge. The court-houses are situated on the wall, which has been levelled east of the town. The construction of a lock-up and a dispensary near the court-houses, and the transfer to that neighbourhood of the station of the provincial police are now (1878) under consideration. The houses are built of wood and bamboos, and are thatched or tiled. The town has more than once been burned down.

Pegu is described by European travellers in the 16th century as of great size, strength, and magnificence. Cæsar Frederick, who was here in the latter portion of the 16th century, according to the account given in Purchas, wrote:—'By the help of God we came safe to Pegu, which are two cities, the old and the new. In the old citie are the Merchant strangers and Merchants of the Countrie, for there are the greatest doings and the greatest trade. This citie is not very great, but it hath very great suburbs. Their houses be made with canes and covered with leaves or with straw; but the Merchants have all one House or Magazon which house they call Godon, which is made of bricks, and

there they put all their goods of any value to save them from the often mischances which happen to houses made of such stuffe. In the new citie is the Palace of the King and his abiding place with all his barons and nobles and other gentlemen ; and in the time that I was there they finished the building of the new citie. It is a great citie, very plaine and flat, and foursquare, walled round about and with ditches that compass the walls round about with water, in which ditches are many Crocodiles. It hath no Drawbridges yet it hath 20 gates, five for every square : on the walls there are many places made for Centinels to watch, made of wood and covered or gilt with gold. The streets thereof are the fairest that I have seen, they are as straight as a line from one gate to another, and standing at one gate you may discover the other ; and they are as broad as that ten or twelve men may ride abreast in them. And those streets that be thwart are faire and large ; the streets both on the one side and on the other are planted at the doores of the houses with nut-trees of India, which make a very commodious shadow ; the houses be made of wood and covered with a kind of tiles in forme of cups very necessary for their use. The King's Palace is in the middle of the Citie made in forme of a walled castle, with ditches full of water round about it. The lodgings within are made of wood, all over gilded, with fine pinnacles and very costlie worke covered with plates of gold ; truly it may be a king's house. Within the gate there is a fine large courte, from the one side to the other wherein are made places for the strongest and stoutest elephants.'

When Aloung-bhúra overran and conquered Pegu in the middle of the 18th century, he used every effort to annihilate all traces of Talaing nationality. He destroyed every house in the town, and dispersed the inhabitants. His great-grandson, Bho-daw Bhúra, who succeeded in 1781, pursued a different policy ; and in his time the seat of the local government was for some time transferred from Rangoon to Pegu. Symes, who visited it in 1795, thus describes it:[1] —'The extent of ancient Pegu may still be accurately traced by the ruins of the ditch and wall that surrounded it. From these it appears to have been a quadrangle, each side measuring nearly a mile and a half ; in places the ditch has been choked up by rubbish that has been cast into it, and the falling of its own banks ; sufficient, however, still remains to show that it was once no contemptible defence ; the breadth I judged to be about 60 yards, and the depth 10 or 12 feet ; in some parts of it there is water, but in no considerable quantity. I was informed that when the ditch was in repair, the water seldom in the hottest seasons sunk below the depth of 4 feet. The wall was a work of magnitude and labour ; it is not easy to ascertain what was its exact height, but we conjectured it at least 30 feet, and in breadth at the

[1] *Embassy to Ava*, p. 182 *et seq.*

base, not less than 40. It is composed of brick, badly cemented with clay mortar. Small equidistant bastions, about 300 yards asunder, are still discoverable; there had been a parapet of masonry, but the whole is in a state so ruinous, and so covered with weeds and briers, as to leave very imperfect vestiges of its former strength.

'In the centre of each face of the fort there is a gateway about 30 feet wide; these gateways were the principal entrances. The passage over the ditch is over a causeway raised on a mound of earth that serves as a bridge, and was formerly defended by an entrenchment, of which there are now no traces.' After describing how ineffectual seemed to have been the endeavours to repopulate Pegu, Colonel Symes continues: 'Pegu in its renovated and contracted state seems to have been built on the plan of the former city, and occupies about one-half of its area. It is fenced round by a stockade from 10 to 12 feet high, on the north and east sides its borders are the old wall.[1] The plan of the town is not yet filled with houses, but a number of new ones are building. There is one main street running east and west, crossed at right angles by two smaller streets not yet finished. At each extremity of the principal street there is a gate in the stockade, which is shut early in the evening; after that hour, entrance during the night is confined to a wicket. . . . There are two inferior gates on the north and south sides of the stockade.

'The streets of Pegu are spacious. . . . The new town is well paved with brick, which the ruins of the old plentifully supply; on each side of the way there is a drain to carry off the water.'

After the capture of Rangoon during the first Burmese war, the Burmese commander-in-chief retired to Pegu, and, his forces becoming thinned by desertion, the inhabitants rose against him and handed the place over to the British, who garrisoned it with a small body of troops. During the second war, it was more stubbornly defended. Early in June 1852, the defences were carried by a force under Major Cotton and Commander Tarleton, R.N., the granaries destroyed, and the guns carried away. Without assistance, however, the inhabitants, at whose request the expedition had been sent, were unable to hold the town for a week, and the Burmese reoccupied the pagoda platform, and threw up strong defences along the river. In November of the same year, a force under Brigadier M'Neill was sent from Rangoon to retake the town, which was achieved after considerable fighting, and with some loss. The main portion of the troops were then withdrawn, and a garrison left of 200 men of the Madras Fusiliers, 200 of the 5th Regiment M.N.I., some European artillery, and a detail of Madras sappers, the whole being placed under the command of Major Hill of the Fusiliers. Hardly had Brigadier M'Neill retired when the

[1] It thus included the Shwe-hmaw-daw pagoda.

Burmese attacked the garrison, but were driven off. The attacks continued, and in the beginning of December the enemy appeared in force, and Major Hill with difficulty held the position. A small reinforcement was despatched from Rangoon; but this was driven back, and forced to retire without communicating with the besieged. General Godwin, the commander-in-chief, then moved up the Pegu river in person with 1200 men, upon which, after some skirmishing, the Burmese retired; but as they remained in the neighbourhood, the force moved out against them and finally defeated them, driving them out of a strong position in the plains, where they had thrown up extensive entrenchments.

A local revenue is raised from the rent of the market stalls and from a rate on the land; in 1877-78, this amounted to £1438.

Pegu.—River in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; rises in lat. 18° N., and long. 96° 10′ E., on the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yoma Mountains, and flows first south-south-east, past the town of Pegu, then south-south-west, and finally joins the Rangoon or HLAING RIVER, in lat. 16° 45′ N., and long. 96° 11′ E., near Rangoon city, after a total course of 180 miles. At its mouth it is about 1 mile broad, and can be ascended by large vessels as far as the Pú-zwondoung, where they take in cargoes of rice, cleaned in the steam mills on the banks of that stream. At neaps the tide is felt as high as Pegu, and during springs a bore rushes up the river almost as far. In the rains, the Pegu is practicable for river steamers up to Pegu town. It taps a country rich in teak and other valuable varieties of timber; and in the lower part of its course, irrigates a considerable area under rice cultivation.

Pegu Yoma.—Mountains in British Burma.—*See* YOMA.

Pehoia (*Pihewa*).—Ancient town and place of pilgrimage in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 58′ 45″ N., and long. 76° 37′ 15″ E., on the sacred river Saraswati (Sarsuti), 13 miles west of Thaneswar. Pop. (1868), 3690. Anciently known as Prithudaka. Stands within the boundary of the Kurukshetra, and ranks second in sanctity to THANESAR alone. Palace, formerly occupied by the Káithal Rájá, now used as a travellers' rest-house. Large annual fair for bathing in the Saraswati, ordinarily attracts from 20,000 to 25,000 pilgrims; but in 1873 as many as 100,000 attended. Widows assemble at the fair to bewail their husbands. The Saraswati contains little water, but is dammed up to secure a sufficiency for the bathers; it is, however, extremely filthy, and the stench at the close of the season becomes almost unendurable. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £153, or 10¼d. per head of population (3562) within municipal limits.

Peint.—Formerly a Native State in Násik, Bombay, between 20° 1′ and 20° 27′ N. lat., and between 72° 58′ and 73° 40′ E. long. Area,

850 sq. miles. Bounded on the north by Sulgána in Khandesh; on the east by the Sahyádri Mountains, which separate it from the Dindori and Násik Subdivisions of Násik District; on the south by the District of Tanna; and on the west by Dharampur in Surat. The total population is returned (1872) at 49,383 persons, and the annual gross revenue is estimated at £5933. A maze of hill and valley, except for some rice-fields and patches of rough hillside cultivation, Peint is over its whole area covered with timber, brushwood, and grass. Towards the north, a leading range of hills, passing westwards at right angles to the main line of the Sahyádri, gives a distinct character to the landscape. But over the rest of the country, ranges of small hills starting up on all sides crowd together in the wildest confusion, with a general south-westerly direction, to within 20 miles of the sea-coast, dividing the valleys of the Daman and Pár rivers. The heavy rainfall, the thick forest vegetation, great variations of temperature, and a certain heaviness of the atmosphere, combine to make the tract malarious and unhealthy. The prevailing diseases are fever and ague. Thermometrical readings in 1874-75 gave 83° F. as an average maximum, and 76° F. as an average minimum, while 94° F. and 65° F. were the corresponding figures for the following year. The principal agricultural products are rice and *nágli* or *ragí* (Eleusine coracana). The population consists almost entirely of forest and hill tribes, who are poor and ignorant, unsettled in their habits, and much given to the use of intoxicating spirits. Some are Muhammadans, but most of them nominally Hindus by religion. Their language is a corrupt Marahthi with a large mixture of Guzeráthi words. A large part of Peint is well suited for grazing, and considerable numbers of cattle and sheep are yearly exported. The chief natural products are timber of various kinds (including bamboos), rice, *nágli*, oil-seeds, bees-wax, honey, elk-horn, and hides. The last chief, Abdul Momin *alias* Lakshadir Dalpat Ráo III., died in 1837, leaving only a legitimate daughter, Núr Jahán, now (1877) fifty-five years of age. This lady has the title of Begam. But as Muhammadan law and usage forbid the succession of a daughter, Peint has lapsed to the British Government. To continue the family an effort was made to procure for the lady a husband able to administer the State. But as the Begam lost her eyesight from an attack of small-pox, the project failed. A life pension was allowed her of £600 a year, in addition to one-third of the surplus revenues of the State, which has since been managed by the Collector and Agent at Násik. On the death of the Begam, it will pass to Government. The ruling family, by descent Rájputs of the Powár tribe, adopted many generations back the family name of Dalvi. During the Marhattá supremacy, their estates were for a considerable period placed under attachment by the Peshwás. In reward for services

rendered in 1818, and as it was important, in so difficult and turbulent a country, to have a ruler of undoubted friendliness, the family were reinstated in their former position by the British Government. There are 8 schools, with 339 pupils, and Peint is now a flourishing part of Násik District. Harsul, the usual place of residence of the Begam, lies in lat. 20° 9′ N., and long. 73° 30′ E.

Peint.—Village in Peint State, Bombay; the residence of the former chiefs of the State, but at present a very small place. Situated in lat. 20° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 29′ 35″ E., 32 miles north-west of Násik, and 10 miles north of Harsul.

Peltai.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras.—*See* PATTAPATTI.

Pen.—Chief town of the Pen Subdivision of Kolába District, Bombay; situated 16 miles east by north of Alíbágh, in lat. 18° 43′ 50″ N., and long. 73° 8′ 40″ E.; pop. (1872), 6514 souls. Pen is a municipality, with an average income of £293. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Pená.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 15′ 15″ N., long. 83° 49′ 30″ E.; area, 92 acres; pop. (1872), 5331.

Pench.—River of the Central Provinces; rising in lat. 22° 20′ N., and long. 78° 37′ E., on the Motúr plateau in Chhindwára District. It flows south-east to Máchágorá, noted for its fishery, thence south to the village of Chánd, where it turns north-east, until stopped by the hills dividing Seoní and Chhindwára Districts. It then flows due south, till, after a course of 120 miles, it joins the Kanhán river in Nágpur District (lat. 21° 17′ N., long. 79° 13′ E.). Principal affluent, the Kolbíra.

Penchalakonda.—Mountain in Nellore District, Madras, and the highest point in the Eastern Gháts within that District. Lat. 14° 17′ N., long. 79° 28′ 45″ E.; elevation above sea level, 3000 feet.

Pendhát.—Village in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces; distant from Máinpuri town 29 miles north-west. Pop. (1872), 1433. Noted for a great religious gathering, held on a movable date, at the shrine of Jokhaiya. Pilgrims come for the purpose of obtaining offspring and easy child-birth.

Pendrá.—Northernmost chiefship of Biláspur District, Central Provinces; situated on the Vindhyán uplands. Though intersected by hills, it consists mainly of an extensive plateau; it contains 165 villages. Area, 585 square miles, of which 40,000 acres are cultivated, and 300,000 returned as cultivable. The chief is a Ráj-Gond, and obtained the grant more than three centuries ago from the Haihai-Bansí rulers of Ratanpur. Pendrá, the headquarters (lat. 22° 47′ N., long. 82° E.), lies on the direct road from Biláspur to Rewá, along which a constant flow of traffic takes place in the cold months; and it contains the ruins of

a fort. A magnificent grove of mango trees, with spreading tamarinds here and there, affords a pleasant camping ground.

Penganga (*Paingangá*).—River of Berar, having its source in the hills beyond Dewal *ghát*, on the west border of Buldána District, in lat. 20° 31′ 30″ N., long. 76° 2′ E. After its course through Buldána, it forms the southern boundary of the Districts of Básim and Wún, as well as of Berar itself. A legend tells that it owes the sudden change in its direction to the north (up to that point easterly), which it takes near Mahúr, to Parasurám, son of the sage Jumdagni, who drove an arrow into the ground here. The spot is still held in great veneration; the falls there are known as Sahasra Kúnd or 'the thousand water caves,' and the river takes the name of Bandganga. The vicinity is densely wooded, and before the British administration it was the resort of numerous plundering gangs. When the river takes a northerly direction, after a series of straight reaches, at rather steep angles, it rushes through a deep rugged channel, broken by rocks and rapids. At last it forces its way through the barriers of basalt into the open country, and joins the Wardha at Jagád (lat. 19° 53′ 30″ N., long. 79° 11′ 30″ E.). It has many tributaries, the most important of which are the Arán (100 miles long) and the Arná (64 miles). The total course of the Penganga exceeds 200 miles. The Sewandhri Hills in the Nizám's Dominions are situated on its right bank.

Pennakonda. — Headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name, Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 14° 5′ 15″ N., long. 77° 38′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 5106, inhabiting 1091 houses. Once an important fortress, to which the Vijáyanagar prince retired after the battle of Tálikot (1565). It was a first-class *Paláyam*, and was dealt with as such in the Partition Treaty of 1799, and in our early revenue settlements. The fort is built on granite rocks, and the remains of its former greatness under Hindu and Musalmán rulers are still very striking. 'Dilapidated palaces,' writes Meadows Taylor, 'and other architectural remains, both Musalmán and Hindu, are here thrown together in strange confusion; and in some cases the most grotesque instances of these incongruous styles are found in the same structure. An ancient palace, called the Ganga Mahál, exhibits some strange tokens of these reverses. The basement is of plain massive Hindu construction, and of great antiquity, coeval apparently with some temples of Mahádeo, which stand close by it. The next storey is of more recent date, and is built in the best style of Muhammadan architecture, elaborately ornamented. Since its erection, it is evident that attempts have been made by the Hindus to alter the Musalmán devices into something which should assimilate with their own work. The very cupolas have been surmounted with inelegant pyramidal work; and a beautiful Saracenic screen, carved in white marble, has been mutilated, and in some parts replaced by some

miserable representations of dragons and other grotesque monsters. The mosque of Sher Alí is perhaps the handsomest building in Pennakonda, and if erected by the chief whose name it bears, must be nearly 300 years old. It is of dark-grey granite, with mouldings of jet-black stone resembling hornblende. Behind this mosque the hill rises precipitously to the height of 500 or 600 feet, presenting a rugged and apparently inaccessible face, partially overgrown with stunted bushes and jungle. In other places, again, the naked rocks lie piled heap upon heap, with here and there perched on some giddy point a tomb, an altar, or a line of battlements, without an indication of the path by which it is to be approached.'—(Captain Meadows Taylor, *Oriental Annual*, 1840.)

Pennár (or *Pinákini; Penner; Pennair*).—The name of two rivers in South India, which both rise near the hill of Nandidrúg in Mysore, and flow eastwards through the Karnatic into the Bay of Bengal. Pennár or Pennair is the name adopted by European geographers; but Pinákini, apparently derived from the bow of Siva, is that by which these rivers are known to the Kanarese inhabitants of Mysore.

(1) The Northern or Uttar Pinákini has its source in the Chenna Kesava Hill north-west of Nandidrúg, and after flowing in a northerly direction through the District of Kolár in Mysore, and the Madras District of Bellary, turns due east and passes through the Districts of Cuddapah (Kadapá) and Nellore, falling into the sea by several mouths 19 miles below Nellore town. Total length, 355 miles; area of drainage basin, 20,500 square miles; principal tributaries, the Pápaghni and the Chitrávati. The stream is useless for navigation, being liable to sudden freshets, one of which carried away an important railway bridge in 1874. The water is largely utilized for purposes of irrigation. In Kolár District, it is estimated that about 85 per cent. of the total drainage is intercepted by means of tanks and minor channels. In Cuddapah District, a canal has been constructed by the Madras Irrigation Company to connect the North Pennár with the Krishna river. An anicut or dam was erected across the river opposite Nellore town in 1855, and repaired by Sir A. Cotton in 1863, in order to irrigate the fertile delta at the river mouth. This dam is 677 yards long, with a crest 9 feet above the bed; it is capable of supplying 64,000 acres all on the right or south bank. During the famine of 1877, it was proposed to construct a similar work at Sangam, about 30 miles higher up the river.

(2) The Southern or Dakshin Pinákini also rises in the hill of Chenna Kesava. It flows first in a southerly direction through the District of Bangalore in Mysore, and then likewise turns east, and, after crossing the Madras Districts of Salem and South Arcot, falls into the Bay of Bengal near Fort St. David, a few miles north of Cuddalore (Kadalúr)

town. Total length, 245 miles; area of drainage basin, 6200 square miles. In Bangalore District, its waters are freely utilized for irrigation, being stored in large tanks. It is estimated that in its basin also about 85 per cent. of the total supply is thus intercepted. The Hoskot tank alone is 10 miles in circumference.

Pentakota.—Town and port in Vizagapatam District, Madras; situated in lat. 17° 19′ N., and long. 82° 35′ 30″ E. Pop. (1871), 1610, residing in 433 houses. In 1875, 16 ships, with an aggregate burthen of 7000 tons, took on board produce, chiefly grain, to the value of £22,500.

Pepali.—Town in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras; situated in lat. 15° 15′ N., and long. 77° 48′ E., on the road from Gúti (Gooty) to Karnúl. Pop. (1871), 5076, dwelling in 916 houses. Deputy Collector's headquarters.

Perambákam.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras. Lat. 12° 54′ 30″ N., long. 80° 15′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 1279, living in 201 houses. A place of mournful memory, where the Madras army encountered its most serious disaster. In 1780, Colonel Baillie, marching from the north with a force of 3700 men, was here surrounded by Haidar's army, and his troops all but annihilated. In the following year, Sir Eyre Coote defeated Haidar Alí on the same spot, and drove him back on Sholingarh.

Perambúr.—Suburb of Madras city.—*See* MADRAS CITY.

Perim.—Island situated in lat. 12° 40′ 30″ N., and long. 43° 23′ E. (King), in the narrowest part of the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb; distant from the Arabian coast nearly 1½ mile, and from the African, between 9 and 10 miles; greatest length, 3½ miles; average width, about 1¼ circumference (following the sinuosities of the coast-line), probably more than 30 miles. This island is under the Government of Aden; and the following account of it is taken from Captain F. M. Hunter's *Statistical Account of Aden* (1877), pp. 171-172:—

'Perim is called by the author of *The Periplus* the island of Diodorus, and is known among the Arabs as Mayoon. It is situated in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, a mile and a half from the Arabian, and 11 miles from the African coast. The formation is purely volcanic, and consists of long, low, and gradually sloping ranges of hills, surrounding an excellent and capacious harbour, about a mile and a half in length, half a mile in breadth, and with a varying depth of from 4 to 6 fathoms in the best anchorages. The hills have formerly been intersected with bays and indentures, which in the course of time have been filled up with coral and sand, and are now low plains, scantily covered with salsola, sea-lavender, wild mignonette, and other plants which delight in a soft sandy soil. These plains occupy about one-fourth of the island, and occur principally on the north side. The rocks, which

are all igneous, are nowhere exposed, save where they dip perpendicularly into the sea; they are covered with a layer of volcanic mud of from 2 to 6 feet in depth, above which is another layer of loose boulders, or masses of black vesicular lava, in some places so thickly set as to resemble a rude pavement. The highest point of the island is 245 feet above the level of the sea. All endeavours to procure water have failed, and but a scanty supply is procurable from the adjacent coasts. Water tanks were constructed, which used to be chiefly supplied from Aden, and it was proposed to erect reservoirs to collect the rain; but, as at Aden, a condensing apparatus was found more suitable.

'Perim has never been permanently occupied by any nation save the British. Albuquerque landed upon it in 1513 on his return from the Red Sea, and, having erected a high cross on an eminence, called the island Vera Cruz. It was again occupied for a short time by the pirates who frequented the mouth of the Red Sea, and who amassed considerable booty by plundering the native vessels engaged in the Indian trade. They formed a project of settling here and erecting strong fortifications; but having with much labour dug through the solid rock to a depth of 15 fathoms in a fruitless search for water, they abandoned their design, and removed to Mary's Island, on the east side of Madagascar.

'In 1799, it was taken possession of by the East India Company, and a force under Lieutenant-Colonel Murray was sent from Bombay to garrison it, with the view of preventing the French troops, then engaged in the occupation of Egypt, from proceeding to India to effect a junction with Tipú Sáhib; but it was deemed untenable as a military position, and the Straits were too broad to be commanded by any batteries on the shore; the troops were accordingly withdrawn.

'In consequence of increasing steam navigation in the Red Sea, the attention of the Indian Government was directed to the necessity of a lighthouse to facilitate the navigation of the Straits. Perim was consequently re-occupied in the beginning of 1857. The lighthouse was completed in 1861, and quarters were also built for a detachment of native infantry, 50 strong, who now garrison the island under the command of a European officer. The detachment is relieved every two months when practicable.' For a complete account of the island, see *Description and History of the British Outpost of Perim*, by Lieutenant J. S. King, Bombay Staff Corps (1877).

Perim (The *Baiōnes* island of the *Periplus*).—Low rocky island, about 1800 yards long, and from 300 to 500 broad; situated in the Gulf of Cambay, in lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 72° 23′ 30″ E., 2½ miles off shore, and 4½ miles distant from Gogo. The island is surrounded by an extensive rocky reef on all sides, except the south, and rises so sheer from the bottom of the sea, that in some places, a few yards

from the shore, there is a depth of 11 and 12 fathoms of water. At low-water spring tides, the channel between Perim and a rocky reef in the centre of the gulf, only 1200 yards wide, has the extraordinary depth of 360 feet, the bottom being yellow clay. The island is composed of tertiary strata; at the south-south-east end is a cliff showing horizontal beds of pudding-stone, separated by sandy clay. None of the beds appears to dip, and none preserves a uniform thickness throughout the cliff, in one part of which the sandstone disappears altogether. The dry reef surrounding the island consists of confused heaps of rock mixed with mud, sand, and clay; the rock is chiefly yellow pudding-stone, in which, on the south-east end of the island, numerous fossil remains of large mammals are found. The coast is lined with sand-hills. The island has a lighthouse, erected in 1865. It is situated 8 miles south of Gogo, and consists of a brick masonry round tower with a spiral stone stair inside. The light has eight burners; height of lantern above high water, 100 feet. It is a single white fixed dioptric light of the fourth order, and is visible from the deck of a ship 20 miles distant. For further nautical details, see Taylor's *India Sailing Directory*, part 1, p. 362.

Perindorai (*'Great Lord'*).—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras, and a station on the south-west line of the Madras Railway; distant 252 miles from Madras city. Lat. 11° 15′ 30″ N., long. 77° 37′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 6347, inhabiting 1302 houses. Formerly headquarters of a *táluk*.

Periya.—*Ghát* or pass in Malabar District, Madras, over which the road from Cannanore to Manantoddi is carried. Lat. 11° 51′ N., long. 75° 50′ 20″ E.

Periyápatná.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore. Area, 447 square miles, of which 157 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 116,334, of whom 110,274 are Hindus, 5674 Muhammadans, 91 Jains, and 295 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £10,443. Special crops—tobacco, betel-nut, and plantains.

Periyápatná.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore. Lat. 12° 20′ 40″ N., long. 76° 7′ 25″ E., 110 miles south-west from Bangalore, and 90 miles south-east of Mangalore. Until 1865, headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 1321. An ancient place, with which the earliest Hindu traditions are connected. A king of the Chola dynasty is said to have constructed a tank and a temple here in the 12th century. In 1659, a mud fort was erected by a Coorg chief, which was shortly afterwards captured by Periyá Wadeyar, a general of the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. He built the large stone fort, which still exists in ruins, and changed the name from Singa-patná to its present designation. During the reign of Tipú the town figures frequently in military history. It witnessed several contests between the Coorgs and the Mysore forces. On three occasions it was occupied by the British;

and in 1791 many houses were burned by Tipú, in order to obstruct the advance of General Abercromby. It is chiefly inhabited by traders, who export cotton and tobacco to Coorg and the west coast.

Periyár.—The most important river in Travancore State, Madras, rising in lat. 10° 40′ N., and long. 76° 56′ E. It flows first north, and afterwards west, a total distance of 142 miles, falling into the sea at Kodungalúr. In its course to the low country, the Periyár is increased by innumerable tributary streams, of which the Mullái, Sherdhoni, Peringakotái, Mudrapalli, Kúndanpára, and Eddamalái are the most considerable. Its progress is often impeded by rocks and narrow gorges in the hills, with occasional falls, rendering the passage quite impracticable for boats above Narramangalam. The greater portion of the teak-wood, which is cut annually in the mountains, is floated down this river to the coast. On reaching Alwái, the Periyár separates into two branches, the northern proceeding to Pallipur, while the southern branch, after leaving Varanpúlái, again separates into two streams, one of which, however, is speedily lost in the estuary to which it flows through numerous channels; the other, continuing in a southerly direction, falls into the lake south of Tripunáthorái. Sixty miles of this river may be considered as navigable, small craft ascending as far as Narramangalam; and on that branch of it which is formed by the Eddamalái, river boats find a ready passage to Iddirarmaud. With the exception of the last 35 miles, the course of this stream lies through a complete wilderness, the populated tracts not extending beyond the town of Mulliatúr. A scheme, known as the Periyár project, for diverting the course of this stream across the watershed of the Gháts into the Vaigai river, in Madura District, is under contemplation.

Peruah.—Ruined town in Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* PANDUAH.

Perumukal (‘*Great Travail*,’ so called because Sítá bore twins here; the *Perumacoil* of Orme).—Village in South Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 12′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 46′ 30″ E. Pop. (1871), 1728, inhabiting 194 houses. It has a small fort, which is perched on a rocky hill, about 370 feet high. The summit is only 400 by 200 yards in extent, and the ascent on all sides is difficult. After the defeat at Wandiwash (1759), the French, retreating on Pondicherri, threw a detachment into the Perumukal fort; Coote, following up the retreat, attempted to storm the place, but was repulsed from the upper fort; he led the attacks himself, and was wounded, the native troops behaving with great gallantry. On the commencement of a more regular attack, the gallant defenders, who had neither food nor ammunition, surrendered. The English held the post for twenty years, and in 1780, Haidar Alí besieged it unsuccessfully. Two years later, it surrendered to him, only to fall before British troops in 1783. It was then dis-

mantled, but remained a post of observation till 1790, when it was taken by Tipú. The nearest town is Tindevanam.

Perungudi.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 17′ N., long. 77° 38′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 5415, living in 1170 houses.

Perúr.—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 58′ N., long. 77° E. Sometimes called *Mél* or Upper Chedambaram, to distinguish it from *Kil* or Lower Chedambaram in South Arcot. Notable for its temples.

Perzágarh.—Hill range in Chánda District, Central Provinces, dividing the Chímúr *parganá* from Brahmapurí; 13 miles long by 6 broad, and ending on the south in a scarped cliff, which can be seen 40 miles off. This cliff is called Perzágarh, and also Sát Bahiní, from seven sisters who lived in religious seclusion on its summit. Some of the valleys have patches of rice cultivation.

Pesháwar.—A Division or Commissionership in the Punjab, comprising the 3 Districts of PESHAWAR, HAZARA, and KOHAT, each of which see separately. Lat. 32° 47′ to 35° 2′ N., long. 70° 34′ to 74° 9′ E. Area of Pesháwar Division (Parliamentary Abstract 1878-79), 8171 square miles; pop. (1868), 1,035,789 souls.

Pesháwar.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 33° 43′ and 34° 31′ N. lat., and between 71° 25′ and 72° 47′ E. long. Area, 1928 square miles in 1868; pop. in 1868, 523,152 persons. The Parliamentary Abstract for 1878 (published in 1879) returns the area as 2497 square miles. Pesháwar is the central District in the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the north by the ranges which link the Sufed Koh to the Hindu Kúsh, on the west and south by continuations of the same mountains, on the south-east by the Indus, and on the north-east by the hills of Boner and Swát. It is thus almost entirely surrounded by independent hill tribes, all of whom are of Pathán origin. The administrative headquarters are at the city of PESHAWAR.

Physical Aspects.—The Pesháwar valley forms an irregular amphitheatre, shut in by hills on every side but one, with its base resting upon the banks of the Indus, into whose basin it opens through the narrow passage of the Kábul river. Its geological origin best explains the existing physical features, as the whole valley forms the abandoned bed of a great post-tertiary lake, whose outlet has slowly worn a way for itself through the barrier of hills which once shut it off from the Indus. At the present day, Pesháwar consists of a central hollow, filled up by alluvial deposits of silt and gravel, interspersed with water-worn boulders; while the Kábul river, which formerly supplied its deep mountain lake, now flows through a marshy level to its *débouchure* opposite the fort of Attock. On the southern frontier, the Khattak Hills rise to a general height of 3000 feet, while the bolder eminences

sometimes reach an elevation of more than 5000. Westward, a still loftier range extends across the valley of the Kábul, and is threaded by the Kháibar Pass, the gate of North-western India. Mulla Ghar, the principal peak in this portion of the chain, has a height of 7060 feet. North of the Kábul comes the Hindu Kúsh system, here represented by bare and irregular hills of trap and limestone. Between them and the Indus, the barrier line is completed by the mountains of Swát, a labyrinth of intricate valleys, hemmed in by lofty precipices, amid whose mazes the villages of the occupying clans nestle, each in its separate nook. To the south of these uplands lies the plain of Yusafzái, where cultivated valleys run up into the hills on every side; but elsewhere, the tilled lands of the central hollow are separated from the mountains by a wide strip of stony country, some 3 or 4 miles in breadth. The western and central portions, along the course of the Kábul and the Swát, are highly cultivated; while the remainder of the District, though unirrigated, produces excellent crops in ordinary seasons. The scenery of the western half is wild and beautiful; it abounds in craggy passes, crowned by ancient towers, and commanding prospects over fields of luxuriant vegetation. The numerous canals in the foreground give evidence of careful cultivation, and the background is formed by the snowy peaks of the distant ranges beyond the border. The eastern extremity, consisting of the plain of Yusafzái and the slopes of the Khattak Hills, is comparatively bleak and barren. The drainage of the entire valley is carried off by the Kábul river, the shrivelled representative of some mighty stream which once burst its way through the rocky barriers on the east into the main channel of the Indus. Its principal tributaries are the Bára from the south, and the Swát from the north-west; while the drainage of the north-eastern hills collects into the Kálpáni, which falls into the Kábul river near Naushahra. The District is well watered.

History.—In the earliest days of Aryan colonization, the Pesháwar valley is said to have been occupied by a prince of the great Lunar race, whose name was perpetuated in that of Gandhára, by which the valley is known in Sanskrit literature. Its capital, Peukelas (or Pushkalavati), is mentioned by Arrian as a large and populous city, captured by Hephaistion, the general of Alexander, after the loss of its chieftain Astes. The site of Pushkalavati has been identified with the modern cluster of the Hashtnagar, or eight cities, on the left bank of the Swát, where vast ruins of ancient edifices are still to be seen. During the epoch of Buddhist supremacy in Northern India, Pushkalavati became famous as the seat of a *stupa*, erected on the spot where Buddha was fabled to have made one of his numerous vivisectory alms-offerings in the shape of his own eyes. It is mentioned in the *Itineraries* of Hiouen Thsang and other Chinese pilgrims of the 5th

and 7th centuries, though by that time the capital of Gandhára had been transferred to Parasháwara or Pesháwar. Until the middle of the 7th century, linguistic evidence would lead us to suppose that the population remained entirely Indian; but before the beginning of the 8th century, a new race, the Afgháns or Patháns, make their appearance in the local annals, and the history of the Pesháwar valley becomes thenceforth that of a debateable ground, fluctuating between the eastern kingdom of Delhi and the western kingdom of Afghánistán. The Afgháns, who were still 'infidels' at this date, first effected a settlement in the hill country to the south of the Kábul river, by the aid of the Ghakkars of HAZARA and RAWAL PINDI; while the Hindu tribes continued to retain possession of Pesháwar itself, and of the Hashtnagar and Yusafzái plains. In 978 A.D., Jáipál, Rájá of Lahore, advanced from Pesháwar to attack Sabuktagín, governor of Khorásán under the titular sway of the Samáni princes. Jáipál was utterly defeated, and Sabuktagín took possession of Pesháwar, which he garrisoned with 10,000 horse. On his death in 997, his son Mahmúd succeeded to his dominions, and, throwing off his nominal allegiance on the Samáni dynasty, assumed the title of Sultán in 999. Mahmúd was the first Musalmán conqueror of Hindustán, and fought many of his greatest engagements in the valley of Pesháwar. He succeeded in converting the Patháns to the religion of the Prophet, and they remained his firm allies in his subsequent struggle with Anang Pál, the last champion of the Hindu creed and nationality in the north, whose defeat on the plains of Chach in RAWAL PINDI laid all Upper India at the feet of the Muhammadan conqueror. After that event, Mahmúd made Pesháwar the basis of operations in his later invasions, and throughout the following century it continued to be a Province of the Ghaznivide empire. When the dominions of Ghazní extended as far as Lahore, Pesháwar became a half-way stage of great importance; but the devastations of Mahmúd seem to have left its northern plains a depopulated waste, occupied only by the tiger and the rhinoceros. The first settlement of undoubted Afghán tribes in the central valley took place, apparently, about the 15th century; though a race of spurious Patháns, known as the Dilazáks, took possession of the plains not long after the time of Mahmúd. Meanwhile, the Patháns of Ghor had thrown off their allegiance on Ghazní, and after the death of Shaháb-ud-dín (1206 A.D.) the provincial governors of India declared their independence, making the Indus their western boundary, so that the Pesháwar valley was again cut off from the eastern kingdom. The Patháns of the Kháibar Hills retained their autonomy, while Pesháwar itself was held by the Dilazáks. But about the close of the 15th century, the great tide of Afghán immigration flowed into the District under the following circumstances:—The Khakhai Patháns were a body of roving adven-

turers, who first came into notice in the time of Timur, and made themselves useful to his descendant Ulugh Beg. The latter treacherously expelled them from Kábul, whereupon they entered the Pesháwar valley in three main clans—the Yusafzái, Gigiánis, and Muhammadzái—and obtained permission from the Dilazáks to settle on a portion of their waste lands. Soon after, the new immigrants found or invented some cause of quarrel against their hosts, whom they attacked, and drove precipitately into the neighbouring District of HAZARA. The Gigiánis settled in the fertile strip of land about the confluence of the Swát and the Kábul; the Muhammadzáis took Hashtnagar as their share of the spoil, while the Yusafzáis were relegated to the northern plain, which still bears their name. The division of the territory thus carried out subsists undisturbed to the present day. For a while, the tribes remained independent; but in 1519, Bábar, who had used the Kháibar Pass in previous incursions, allied himself with the injured Dilazák chieftains, and subjugated the Pathán tribes who held these important mountain tracts. It would be tedious to follow the fortunes of Pesháwar through all the vicissitudes of the struggle between the dynasties of Bábar and Sher Sháh. Enough will be said in the simple statement that Pesháwar remained in the power of the Delhi court during the reign of Akbar, and that the remnant of the Dilazáks had been completely ousted in the previous reign. During the flourishing times of Jahángír, Sháh Jahán, and Aurangzeb, the valley rendered an unwilling allegiance to the central authority; but under the last-named emperor, a national insurrection was successful in freeing the Pathán tribes from the Mughal supremacy. In 1738, the District fell into the hands of Nádir Sháh; and under the succeeding Duráni dynasty, Pesháwar was often the seat of the Kábul court. On the death of Timúr Sháh in 1793, Pesháwar shared the general disorganization of the Afghán kingdom; and the Síkhs, who were then in the first fierce outburst of revenge upon their Muhammadan enemies, advanced into the valley in 1818, and overran the whole country to the foot of the hills. In 1823, Azím Khán made a last desperate attempt to turn the tide of Síkh victories, and marched upon Pesháwar from Kábul; but he was utterly defeated by Ranjít Sinh, and the whole District lay at the mercy of the conquerors. The Síkhs, however, did not take actual possession of the land, contenting themselves with the exaction of a tribute, whose punctual payment they ensured or accelerated by frequent devastating raids. After a period of renewed struggle and intrigue between Síkh and Afghán, Pesháwar fell at last into the hands of the Síkhs, who appointed General Avitabile as governor, and ruled with their usual fiscal severity. In 1848, the District came into the possession of the British; but the details of the war of occupation belong rather to the general history of India and of the Punjab than to the

narrower annals of the Pesháwar valley. During the Mutiny of 1857, the Native regiments stationed at Pesháwar showed signs of insubordination, and were accordingly disarmed with some little difficulty in May 1857. But the 55th Native Infantry, stationed at Nowshera and Hoti Mardan, rose in open rebellion; and on a force being despatched against them, marched off towards the Swát Hills across the frontier. General Nicholson was soon in pursuit, and scattered the rebels with a loss of 120 killed and 150 prisoners. The remainder sought refuge in the hills and defiles across the border, but were hunted down by the friendly clans, till they perished of hunger or exposure, or were brought in prisoners, and hanged or blown away from cannon. This stern but necessary example prevented any further act of rebellion in the District.

Population.—The Census of 1868, which was the first trustworthy enumeration of the people, disclosed a total population of 523,152 persons, spread over an area of 1928 square miles, and inhabiting an aggregate of 654 villages or townships, containing 121,256 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 271; villages per square mile, 0·34; houses per square mile, 62; persons per village, 799; persons per house, 4·31. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 286,006; females, 237,146: proportion of males, 54·67 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 100,954; females, 82,840; total children, 183,794, or 35·11 per cent. In religion, the Pesháwar valley is almost entirely Musalmán, as might naturally be expected from its early conversion and its close connection with the Afghán kingdom. The Census returns show 481,447 Muhammadans, or 92·03 per cent.; while the Hindu faith reckoned only 27,408 adherents, or 5·24 per cent. The narrow margin is made up by 2014 Síkhs, and 12,283 returned as 'others,' yielding small percentages of 0·38 and 2·35 respectively. By far the largest tribe in the District is that of the Patháns, who number in all 241,684 souls, or 46·19 per cent. of the total population. Their principal clan is the Yusafzái, who are returned at 82,170 souls; they retain all the individual freedom, patriarchal institutions, and jealousy of personal aggrandizement, which are the original characteristics of the Afghán mountaineers. The other Patháns, to the south of the Kábul river, who were more completely subjugated by the Síkhs, have lost many of their native traits; their chieftains have acquired a more feudal character, and the liberty of the Afghán freeman has been lost in the political supremacy of the chief. In their original state, the Yusafzáis were divided into countless minor clans, each of which had a separate organization, and was often at feud with its neighbours; and the constant intestinal warfare compelled the men to plough their fields with a matchlock slung across their backs. Though British rule has altered this condition of affairs, it has not

obliterated from the minds of the Patháns the lawless instincts produced by their ancestral customs. The Sayyids number 10,498 souls, and their sacred character and descent gives them great influence amongst the fanatical Pathán population. Of the Hindkis, or persons of original Indian descent, the Gújars number 10,384 (all Musalmáns), mostly in the position of vassals under Afghán masters. The principal Hindu tribes, which still retain the faith of their fathers, are the Brahmáns (2185), Kshattriyas (6398), Banias (3444), and Aroras (11,957); they form the chief trading community in Pesháwar and the other towns, while in each agricultural village a few of them carry on the business of money-lenders. The only other noticeable tribes are the Mughals (21,426) and Kashmírís (12,238). Slavery still lingers on in the remoter villages under the guise of hereditary serfdom, in spite of the theoretical prohibitions of British law. The Census shows 5 towns with a population exceeding 5000—namely, PESHAWAR TOWN (58,555), PESHAWAR CANTONMENT (22,709), CHARSADA (7233), NAUSHAHRA (6083), and TANGI NASRATZAI (7414). Language, Pushtu.

Agriculture.—The total cultivated area of Pesháwar is returned at 922,240 acres, while the cultivable margin amounts to 267,244 acres. The staple crops, and the area under each, in 1873-74 were as follows:—*Rabí* or spring harvest—wheat, 320,525 acres; barley, 210,000 acres; oil-seeds, 25,000 acres: *Kharíf* or autumn harvest—maize, 46,940 acres; millets, 42,622 acres; pulses, 19,922 acres; rice, 10,225 acres; cotton, 19,109 acres; sugar-cane, 9900 acres. It will be seen that food-stuffs form the principal products, and that the raw materials of manufacture are little grown. Agricultural knowledge is very backward; rotation of crops being only known in its simplest elements. Irrigation is practised to a considerable extent, as many as 135,308 acres being supplied with water from private works; while the lands in the neighbourhood of the Swát and Kábul rivers are saturated with moisture from numerous channels. The out-turn per acre of the principal staples was returned as follows in 1873-74:—Rice, 738 lbs.; cotton, 41 lbs.; sugar-cane, 1120 lbs.; wheat, 420 lbs.; inferior grains, 1148 lbs.; oil-seeds, 410 lbs. The tenures of land belong to the standard Punjab types, that of *pattidárí*, pure or mixed, immensely preponderating. Most of the soil is held by tenants-at-will, only about one-sixth of the cultivators having acquired rights of occupancy. Rents vary in accordance with the nature of the crop for which the soil is suited; in 1873-74, they ruled as follows:—Rice lands from 19s. 5¾d. to £1, 6s.; cotton lands, from 4s. to 5s. 2¼d.; wheat lands, irrigated, from 9s. 1½d. to 17s. 0¾d.—unirrigated, from 3s. to 7s. 9¾d.; inferior grains, irrigated, from 10s. to 14s. 6d.—unirrigated, from 2s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. In the same year, wages were returned at the following rates:—Unskilled workmen, from 3d. to 4½d. per diem; skilled

workmen, from 1s. to 1s. 4d. per diem. In 1873, prices of food-stuffs ruled as follows:—Wheat, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; *joár*, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 1¾d. per cwt. As the rivers are fed by the melting snows of the Hindu Kúsh and other mountain ranges, Pesháwar is not entirely dependent on the local rainfall, and is consequently to a great extent secure from the danger of famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District chiefly centres in the town of Pesháwar, and is far less extensive than might be expected from its position on the great highway between India and the Central Asiatic kingdoms. The principal foreign markets with which the District deals are Kábul and Bokhára; but the greater part of the traffic merely passes through Pesháwar, and is not arrested on its direct course to the Punjab. An endeavour was made some years since to constitute Pesháwar its main entrepôt, by means of a yearly fair; but the enterprise did not prove successful. The imports from Kábul consist of raw silk, worsted, cochineal, drugs, and other miscellaneous goods, for re-exportation to the south and east. Bokhára supplies gold bullion and gold or silver thread, which are handed on to the traders of Kashmír (Cashmere). The return trade from Hindustán includes English piece-goods, cambrics, silk, sugar, and spices; while that from Kashmír is confined to the single item of shawls. The local manufactures comprise cutlery, snuff, and coarse cloth. The Pesháwar scarves are celebrated throughout India for their fine texture and tasteful colouring. The principal channel of communication is the Grand Trunk Road, which enters the District from Lahore at a point opposite Attock, and is continued to Pesháwar, with a total length of 45 miles, metalled and bridged throughout. There are other 7 miles of metalled, and 446 of unmetalled road, within the District. Pesháwar is also connected with Lahore by a line of telegraph.

Administration.—The ordinary civil staff of Pesháwar comprises a Deputy Commissioner, 3 Assistants, a Cantonment Magistrate, a Judge of the Small Cause Court, and 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual minor officials. In 1873-74, the District contained 24 civil and fiscal courts and 16 magisterial. In 1851-52, the total imperial revenue amounted to £83,891; by 1871-72, it had decreased to £78,412. At the latter date, the sum contributed by the land tax was £62,327, or rather more than three-fourths of the whole. The other principal items were stamps, assessed taxes, and excise. For police purposes, Pesháwar is divided into 12 circles (*thánás*). The imperial police numbered 697 men of all ranks in 1872, and this force was supplemented by a municipal constabulary of 262 men, besides a special cantonment police of 156 constables. There was also a rural body of 1029 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). The total machinery,

therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2144 men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 244 of the population and to every 0·89 square mile of the area. The criminal statistics show a total of 8777 persons brought to trial for all offences, great and small, during the year 1871, being at the rate of 1 offender to every 59 inhabitants. The more heinous crimes, such as murder, robbery, and housebreaking, are still common, and the wild habits of the Pathán tribes have not yet been brought into harmony with our industrial *régime*. There is one jail in Peshávar, the total number of prisoners in which amounted to 1671 in 1872. The daily average was 448. In 1872-73, the total number of children under instruction was returned at 1858; while the sum expended upon education from public funds amounted to £1047. The District is subdivided into 5 *tahsíls* and 8 *tappas*. The only municipality in the District is Peshávar city.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Peshávar valley naturally varies much with the elevation and other physical peculiarities. In the high and open uplands of Yusafzái, the air is fresh and buoyant; but in the low-lying central hollow, the land is saturated with the overflow of the Swát and the Kábul, so that the atmosphere becomes heavy and damp, chilling in winter, and laden with warm moisture in the hot season. In the greater part of the valley, shut in as it is by high walls of rock, the air is singularly stagnant and motionless. The city itself has a bad reputation for fever and cholera. The temperature ranges from a minimum of 17° F. in February, to a maximum of 137° in July. The annual rainfall amounted to 14·9 inches in 1868-69, 12·9 in 1869-70, 11·3 in 1870-71, 9·9 in 1871-72, and 17·7 in 1872-73. The chief endemic disease is fever, which is very prevalent in the Peshávar cantonments. There are 3 Government charitable dispensaries, at Peshávar, Mardán, and Shab-kadar; patients in 1873, 50,773.

Peshávar (*Peshawur*).—*Tahsíl* of Peshávar District, Punjab; comprising the Khalíl Subdivision, from the city to the Kháibar Hills, together with the Mohmand country in the south-eastern corner of the District. Area, 153 square miles; pop. (1868), 74,781; villages, 103.

Peshávar.—City, municipality, and administrative headquarters of Peshávar District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 58,555, consisting of 49,095 Muhammadans, 8747 Hindus, 584 Síkhs, 17 Christians, and 112 'others;' or with the population of the suburbs immediately outside the walls, 60,974 persons. Situated in lat. 34° 1′ 45″ N., and long. 71° 36′ 40″ E., in a small plain near the left bank of the Bára stream, 13½ miles south-east of the junction of the Swát and Kábul rivers, and 10½ miles from Jamrúd fort at the entrance of the Kháibar (Khyber) Pass. Distant from Lahore 276 miles, from Kábul 190 miles. Ancient capital of Gandhára Province, and historically important at all later periods (*see* PESHAWAR DISTRICT). Buddhist

remains still mark its early greatness. The modern city has but slight architectural pretensions, the houses being chiefly built of small bricks or mud, held together by a wooden framework. Irregular streets, often ending in tortuous blind-alleys. A mud wall, 10 feet high, surrounds the city, chiefly as a protection from robbers. Several mosques; large building known as the Ghor Khatri, once a Buddhist monastery, then rebuilt into a Hindu temple, now used as a *sarái*, and containing the *tahsíli*. Just without the wall, on the northern side, a quadrilateral fort, the Bála Hissár, crowns a small eminence, completely dominating the city. Its walls of sun-dried brick rise to a height of 92 feet above the ground, with a *fausse-braye* of 30 feet; bastions stand at each corner and on three of the faces, while an armament of guns and mortars is mounted above. The population is very mixed, and is subdivided into petty trade-guilds, recruited from all the races of the North-Western frontier. Commercially, Pesháwar possesses less importance than might be expected from its situation. The principal foreign markets with which it has dealings are Kábul and Bokhára. Large through trade from Central Asia to the Indian towns, for the purpose of retaining which upon the spot a fair was unsuccessfully set on foot in 1869. Small local manufactures of sundry articles. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £14,691, or 2s. 8¾d. per head of population (58,430) within municipal limits.

Pesháwar.—Cantonment in Pesháwar District, Punjab, lying west of the city, from which it is divided by the slight depression of the Sadr Bázár. Lat. 34° 0′ 15″ N., long. 71° 34′ 45″ E. Pop. (1868), 22,709, consisting of 5882 Muhammadans, 4340 Hindus, 410 Síkhs, 3362 Christians, and 8715 'others.' Pleasantly and picturesquely situated on a sloping elevation, looking towards the Kháibar Hills, and occupying one of the highest sites in the valley. South-eastward stretch barren and stony plains; northward, a marsh extends in the direction of the Kábul river. The buildings cover a space 3½ miles in length, by 1¾ mile in breadth. Lines exist for a battery of artillery, a regiment of Native cavalry, 4 regiments of Native infantry, 1 of British infantry, and 2 companies of sappers. Commissariat stores, court-house and treasury, jail, police lines, church, Roman Catholic chapel, post office, and staging bungalow. Handsome gardens; avenues of trees line the main roads. Fever prevails at all times of year; water supply impure. The sanitary state of the station has lately been improved.

Pethápur. — Native State within the Agency of Mahi Kánta, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 6898. Agricultural products—millet, pulse, and wheat. Cotton cloth is imported and dyed, for exportation to Siam. The chief is descended from a branch of the Hindu dynasty of Anhilwára Patan, whose power was destroyed by Alá-ud-dín in 1298.

Siramahi or Sarangdeo, one of the two sons of the last king of Pátan, was granted the town of Kálol and surrounding villages. Descended from him in the tenth generation was Herutájí, who in 1445 slew his maternal uncle, Pitájí, of the Gohel tribe, and took possession of the State called after him, Pethápur. The chief has enjoyed semi-independent power since the establishment of his family in Mahi Kánta. The present (1876-77) chief, Thákur Himat Sinh, a Hindu of the Wághela clan of Rájputs, is thirty years of age, and manages the State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £1600, and pays an annual tribute of £863 to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The family do not hold a title authorizing adoption, but they follow primogeniture in matters of succession. One school, 125 pupils.

Pethápur.—Principal town of Pethápur State, Mahi Kánta, Bombay, and the residence of the chief; situated in lat. 23° 13′ 10″ N., and long. 72° 33′ 30″ E. Noted for the brilliancy of its dyes. Considerable quantities of cloth are brought into the town to be coloured.

Phaeton.—Small shoal off the mouth of the Bassein river, British Burma; on which H.M.S. *Phaeton* struck on the 16th of February 1810, and was obliged to put into Calcutta for repairs. It bears south-west by south from Diamond Island (distant 4 miles), and north by east (distant 3½ miles) from the Alguada Reef, having 9 fathoms of water close to, and 2 fathoms upon it.

Phágu.—Halting-place, with good Government rest-house of several rooms, in Keunthal State, Punjab, 12 miles east of Simla on the pony route to Kotgarh. Lat. 31° 6′ N., long. 77° 21′ E. Romantically situated about 8000 feet above sea level, and sometimes resorted to by Simla residents as well as travellers. The noble forests which clothed the mountain slopes have been in great part burned down, and given place to potato cultivation. Formerly a chief source of charcoal fuel for Simla. Of late, game has become very scarce.

Phalalum (*Phalut*).—One of the loftiest peaks in Darjílíng District, Bengal, in the Singalilá spur of the Himálayas; 12,042 feet in height. Lat. 27° 12′ 30″ N., long. 88° 3′ E. The view of the great northern Snowy Mountains from this hill is said by the District officer to be one of 'indescribable grandeur. A jagged line of snow connecting the two highest mountains in the world, Everest and Kánchanjangá, dazzles the eye; and while the deep silence around impresses itself upon the spectator, the thick clumps of pine forest, with their wide-spreading arms, add a weird solemnity to the scene.'

Phalauda.—Town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 4697. Abandoned for nearly two centuries, on account of a curse uttered by Kutab Sháh, a *fakír;* and no one would cultivate it at the settlement in 1836. Muhammadans still refuse to live in the town, as they say they are immediately seized with disease.

Phálgú.—River of Gayá District, Bengal; formed by the union, a few miles above Gayá town, of two hill torrents, the Lilájan and the Moháná, which both enter the District from the south. When the Phálgú reaches the high and rocky shores of Gayá, it is above 500 yards wide, and for the next half-mile is remarkable for its sanctity. During the hot weather it dries up, but water can always be obtained by digging a few feet below the surface. After leaving Gayá, the river runs in a north-easterly direction for about 17 miles. When opposite the Barábár Hill, it divides into two branches, which flow eventually into a branch of the Púnpún.

Phalián.—Western *tahsíl* of Gujrát District, Punjab; consisting of a wild plateau conterminous with that of Sháhpur; lying between 32° 10′ 30″ and 32° 44′ N. lat., and 73° 20′ and 73° 55′ 30″ E. long. Area, 695 sq. miles; pop. (1868), 154,287; persons per sq. mile, 222; villages, 332.

Pháljar.—Village in the Jáintia plains in the north of Sylhet District, Assam; containing a celebrated Hindu temple, at which human sacrifices used formerly to be offered; a practice which led to the British annexation of Jáintia in 1837.

Phaltán.—Native State within the Agency of Satára, Bombay, lying between 17° 56′ and 18° 6′ N. lat., and between 74° 16′ and 74° 44′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Poona (Púna) District, and on the east, west, and south by Satára District; area, about 400 square miles; pop. (1872), 59,124. The country is flat. About 2000 acres of garden cultivation are irrigated for the most part from wells. Indian millet and timber are the chief products, and oil the chief manufacture. The climate is hot. The Phaltán family is of Rájput origin. One Padakla Jagdeo entered the service of the Emperor of Delhi, and on his death in battle, in 1327, the Emperor gave the title of Náik and a grant of lands to his son Nimbráji, who died in 1349. In 1825, the State was attached by the Rájá of Satára. In 1827, Banáji Náyak was permitted to succeed on payment of a relief of £3000. On his death in the following year, Phaltán was again attached by the Satára Government till 1841, when the widow of the deceased chief was allowed to adopt a son—the present chief of Phaltán—on payment of a relief of £3000. The present ruler (1876-77), who ranks as a 'First-Class Sardár' in the Deccan, is Mádhav Ráo Náik Nimbalkar Desmukh Jagirdár. He is a Hindu of the Rájput caste, thirty-nine years old, and administers his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £12,758, and pays a tribute of £960. The family hold a title authorizing adoption. In matters of succession, they do not follow the custom of primogeniture. There are 12 schools in the State, with 618 pupils.

Phaltán.—Chief town of Phaltán State, in the Deccan; situated in lat. 17° 59′ 40″ N., and long. 74° 28′ 20″ E., 37 miles north-east of

Satára. Pop. (1872), 9741. The town was founded by Nimbráj in the 14th century.—*See* PHALTAN STATE.

Phalút.—Lofty peak in Darjílíng District, Bengal.—*See* PHALALUM.

Pháphúnd. — Central eastern *tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level upland plain, traversed by the East Indian Railway, and watered by the Etáwah branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 231 square miles, of which 130 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 97,574; land revenue, £19,830; total Government revenue, £20,894; rental paid by cultivators, £29,935.

Pháphúnd.—Ancient and decaying town in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 26° 35′ 50″ N., long. 79° 30′ 25″ E.; pop. (1872), 6536, consisting of 4115 Hindus and 2421 Muhammadans. Situated on an old mound, 36 miles east of Etáwah town. Good brick-built houses; wide, busy *bázár*, open modern quarter known as Humeganj; handsome *sarái*, with large enclosure shaded by trees. *Tahsíli*, police station, Anglo-vernacular school. Railway station 6 miles north-east, with telegraph office; post office in the town. Ruins of great tanks and temples surround the site on every side. Two mosques, masonry well, 4 tanks. Declining trade, population on the decrease. Twice plundered and burnt during the Mutiny of 1857. Annual fair, attended by 10,000 persons, at the tomb of Sháh Bukhári, a Musalmán ascetic.

Pharámgiri (or *Farámgiri*).—Village in the south-east of the Gáro Hills District, Assam; on the southern slope of the Mimanrám Mountain, 3952 feet above sea level. The inhabitants of this village perpetrated the massacre of the survey coolies in 1871, which led to the Gáro expedition of the following year, and the British annexation of the District.

Pharha.—Small but active trading town in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 2216. Distant from Máinpuri town 39½ miles. Police station, post office. Brisk trade in indigo, cotton, grain, and country produce; declining since the opening of the railway. Branch indigo factory of the Umargarh establishment.

Pheni.—River of Eastern Bengal; rising in lat. 23° 20′ N., and long. 91° 49′ 30″ E., in Hill Tipperah, it flows south-west, marking the boundary between Hill Tipperah and the Chittagong Hill Tracts, which it leaves at Rámghar. Thence it flows west and south, dividing Chittagong from Noákhálí District on the north, and ultimately falls into the Sandwíp Channel, an arm of the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 22° 46′ N., and long. 91° 31′ E. During its course through the hills, it is of little use for purposes of navigation; its banks are abrupt, and covered with heavy grass and bamboo jungle. The Pheni is of considerable depth during the rains, but is rendered dangerous by rapid currents, whirling eddies, and sharp turns; at every full and new moon, especially at the time of the equinox, there is a bore in the Sandwíp Channel, which is

highest at the mouth of the Pheni river. It is navigable by large boats throughout the year for a distance of 30 miles.

Phillaur.—Central southern *tahsíl* of Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, lying between 30° 57′ 15″ and 31° 13′ N. lat., and between 75° 33′ and 76° E. long., along the bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Land revenue (1876), £129,971.

Phillaur.—Municipal town in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1868), 7535, consisting of 4153 Muhammadans, 2523 Hindus, 749 Síkhs, and 110 Christians. Situated in lat. 31° 0′ 38″ N., and long. 75° 49′ 55″ E., on the right bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 27 miles south-east of Jalandhar town. The modern town dates from the reign of Sháh Jahán, when its site, then covered with ruins, was selected for one of the *saráis* or resting-stages on the imperial route from Delhi to Lahore. It was seized on the rise of the Síkh power by one Sudh Sinh, who made it the capital of a considerable estate; and fell into the hands of Ranjít Sinh in 1807, who converted the *sarái* into a fort to command the passage of the Sutlej. After the British occupation, the fort was occupied as an important artillery arsenal and magazine; and a cantonment was formed in the neighbourhood, which continued to be occupied till the Mutiny of 1857, when the detachment in garrison rebelled. The cantonment was not reoccupied after the pacification. Phillaur owes its modern importance to the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, on which it forms one of the depôt stations. Large colony of railway employés. *Tahsíli*, police centre, branch dispensary, middle-class school. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £290, or 9⅛d. per head of population (7535) within municipal limits.

Phingeswar (*Fingeswar*).—Chiefship attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces, about 30 miles south of Ráipur town; containing 80 villages, and valuable forests. The chief claims to be a Ráj-Gond; and the chiefship is said to have been granted to his ancestor in 1579. Phingeswar town lies in lat. 20° 58′ N., and long. 82° 5′ E.

Phuljhar. — Chiefship in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, formerly one of the Hill States known as the *Athára Garhját*, or the Eighteen Forts. Pop. (1866), 32,721; area, about 1000 square miles, more than half of which is cultivated. The soil is light and sandy, except here and there in the valleys. In the west, some fine strips of *sál* jungle fringe the main road between Ráipur and Sambalpur, especially near the river Jonk; the tigers which infested them have been of late nearly exterminated. Wild buffaloes are found near the Jonk, and bears, leopards, etc., among the hills. Rice forms the staple crop, but pulses, cotton, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and gram are also grown. Excellent iron-ore has been found. The school in Phuljhar, the chief town (lat. 21° 13′ N., long. 82° 53′ E.), has about 50 pupils. This chiefship is subdivided into eight estates—

Phuljhargarh, comprising 14 villages; Kelindá, Boitarí, and Basná, 12 each; Baládá, 10; Borsará, 11; Singhorá, 7; and Sánkrá, 17. About 250 villages are held by the farmers direct from the chief, who is a Ráj-Gond. He reckons his annual income at £500 or £600, and pays an annual tribute of £50. The chiefship was granted to his ancestor 300 years ago by the Patná Rájás, for service in the field.

Phúlpur.—*Tahsíl* of Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the north bank of the river Ganges. Area, 274 square miles, of which 153 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 160,305; land revenue, £23,659; total Government revenue, £26,030; rental paid by cultivators, £49,521; actual incidence of land revenue per acre, 2s. 8⅜d.

Piálí.—River in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. A cross stream from the BIDYADHARI to the MATLA; it branches off from the former river in lat. 22° 25′ N., and long. 88° 35′ E., near Bhágirathpur, and flows a southerly and south-westerly course till it falls into the Matlá about 15 miles below Port Canning. The river is bridged at the point where the Calcutta and South-Eastern Railway crosses it. The Piálí is a deep stream, about 100 yards in breadth where it leaves the Bidyádharí, increasing to about 250 yards on its way.

Piánja.—Town in Baroda State, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 6686.

Pien-nai-khyoung.—Revenue circle in the East U-rí-toung township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 4510; revenue, £1180.

Pigeon Island.—Island off the coast of Vizagapatam District, Madras; situated in lat. 17° 33′ N., and long. 83° 14′ E., about 7 leagues eastward of Wattada. It lies low, and is not discernible from a distance. Another small island off the coast of Kanára bears the same name.

Piháni.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District, on the east by Kheri and Sítápur Districts, on the south by Gopámau and Mansúrnagar *parganás*, and on the west by Mansúrnagar and Alamnagar. Area, 80 square miles, of which 43 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 34,028, viz. 26,442 Hindus and 7586 Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £4086. Number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 81. The proprietory class consists of Bráhmans, Rájputs, Káyasths, and Musalmáns.

Piháni.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh, and headquarters of Piháni *parganá*; situated in lat. 27° 37′ 15″ N., and long. 80° 14′ 25″ E., on the road between Sítápur and Sháhjahánpur. Pop. (1869), 7582, viz. 4494 Hindus and 3088 Muhammadans, residing in 327 brick and 1493 mud houses. A place of considerable importance during native administration, but now in a state of decay. A handsome mosque and tomb marks the resting-place of Akbar's celebrated chancellor, Sadr Jahán. Piháni was formerly noted for its manufacture

of sword-blades of the finest temper, and its woven turbans (*dastár*). Both these industries have now died out. Police station; Government school.

Pihewa. — Town in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab. — *See* PEHOIA.

Pilibhít.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces, lying to the south of the submontane *tarái.* Area, 841 square miles, of which 476 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 286,560; land revenue, £41,205; total Government revenue, £45,360; rental paid by cultivators, £84,317; actual incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 6⅝d.

Pilibhít. — Municipal town in Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 28° 38′ N., and long. 79° 50′ 50″ E., on the Deoha river, 30 miles north-east of Bareli city. Pop. (1872), 29,840, consisting of 17,499 Hindus, 12,327 Muhammadans, and 14 'others.' Formerly headquarters of a District. Considerable trade in forest produce from the *tarái* and Chinese Tartary. Great mart for rice from Kumáun, known throughout India as Pilibhít rice, and much prized for its fineness and white colour. Brick wall, built by Háfiz Rahmat Khán in 1769. Residence of a joint magistrate and assistant superintendent of police. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £4887; from taxes, £2120, or 1s. 5d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Pilkhuwa.—Municipal town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 6239, consisting of 5572 Hindus and 659 Musalmáns. Situated in lat. 28° 42′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 42′ E., in a depression of the plain, 19 miles south-west of Meerut (Mírath) city. The Hindu manufacturing population is engaged in cotton-weaving, which employs 100 looms. There is also some trade in leather and shoes. Mr. Michel of the Masuri factory owns the town with 13 neighbouring villages, having purchased the estate after the Mutiny. Two large Hindu temples; police station, post office, 2 *saráis.* The drainage is very imperfect, and there is great mortality from fever in the autumn months. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £348; from taxes, £288, or 11d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Piming.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, traversing a lofty ridge in Kunáwar, which forms the boundary between Chinese and British territory. Lat. 31° 49′ N., long. 78° 46′ E.; elevation above sea, 13,518 feet.

Pimpalgáon Rájá.—Town in Buldána District, Berar, said to have been founded 800 years ago, by a prince of the herdsman caste, named Pirat Sinh; situated in lat. 20° 43′ N., and long. 76° 30′ E., on the river Dayánganga. Pop. (1867), 14,390. It is said to have suffered much from marauders towards the end of the last century, and to have been

subsequently ruined by the black-mail levied by Mahdájí Sindhia in 1790, on his way to Poona (Puná) after his expedition against Ghulám Kádir Beg of Delhi. On the south side of the town is a subterranean temple to the goddess Renuka, about 30 feet under ground. At the end of the narrow rock-hewn gallery or temple is the idol. Ganesh Dewádaya, a Hindu theologian, flourished here about 1619 A.D. Some of his works are still read and preserved in the neighbourhood.

Pimpládevi.—One of the Bhíl (Bheel) States in the Dang country, Khandesh, Bombay.—*See* DANG STATES.

Pimpri.—One of the Bhíl (Bheel) States in the Dang country, Khandesh, Bombay.—*See* DANG STATES.

Pín (*Pinu* or *Pim*).—River in Kángra District, Punjab; the most important tributary of the Spiti river. Rises in the angle of the Mid-Himálaya and Mánirang ranges, and with its affluent, the Parakio, drains one quarter of the Spiti valley. Flows through a barren and rocky glen, shut in on either side by bare precipices; but near the mouth the basin broadens out so as to afford room for 11 villages with their cultivated lands. Finally joins the Spiti, in lat. 32° 6′ N., and long. 78° 11′ E., a little above Dankar, after a course of 45 miles. Width of bed near the mouth, from 300 to 800 yards.

Pináhat.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of the broken strip of country between the Jumna (Jamuná) and the Chambal rivers. Area, 338 square miles, of which 189 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 142,155; land revenue, £17,555; total Government revenue, £20,036; rental paid by cultivators, £36,851; actual incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 7½d.

Pínákini, Northern and Southern.—Two rivers in Southern India.—*See* PENNAR.

Pind Dádan Khán.—*Tahsíl* of Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab; occupying the Salt Range and country to the south. Lat. 32° 26′ to 32° 49′ N., and long. 72° 32′ to 73° 22′ E.

Pind Dádan Khán.—Large and flourishing commercial town in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1868), 15,740, consisting of 7329 Hindus, 7984 Muhammadans, 404 Síkhs, and 23 'others.' Situated in lat. 32° 35′ N., and long. 73° 5′ 20″ E., 1 mile from the north bank of the Jhelum river, and 5 miles from the foot of the Salt Range. Centre of the trade of the District. Founded in 1623 by Dádan Khán, whose descendants still reside in the town. Narrow and tortuous streets; defective sanitary arrangements, which Government has made strenuous efforts to remedy. Extensive export and import trade with the distant marts of the Province. Merchants have agents at Múltán, Amritsar (Umritsur), Sukkur (Sakhar), Pesháwar, and the countries beyond the border. Exports of salt from the MAYO MINES southward; of silk and cotton

piece-goods northward and westward; and of brass and copper to the whole surrounding country: imports of English piece-goods, metals and raw silk from Amritsar and Múltán; of woollen fabrics from Kashmír (Cashmere); and of dried fruits, furs, and woollen goods of Central Asia from Peshávar. Extensive trade in country produce, grain, *ghí*, and oil. Manufacture of brass and copper ware, and of silk *lungis* (scarves). River boats built at Pind Dádan Khán are in great request throughout the whole course of the Jhelum. Court-house, *tahsíli*, police centre, town hall, staging bungalow, *sarái*, school-house, dispensary, small church. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £2115, or 2s. $6\frac{3}{8}$d. per head of population (15,414) within municipal limits.

Pindigheb.—South-western *tahsíl* of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab; lying between 33° and 33° 47′ N. lat., and between 71° 45′ and 72° 42′ E. long., and consisting of a rugged hilly tract lying along the eastern bank of the Indus.

Pindigheb.—Municipal town in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1868), 8223, consisting of 3085 Hindus, 4905 Muhammadans, and 233 Síkhs. Situated in lat. 33° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 18′ E., on the road between Ráwal Pindi and Kálabágh. Residence of chiefs of Jodrah clan of Rájputs, by whom the town was founded. Trade in country produce—grain, cotton, oil, and wool. The surplus grain supplies the cantonments of Ráwal Pindi and Attock. Manufactures of country cloth and soap, exported beyond the Indus. *Tahsíli*, police station, excellent school, Government rest-house. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £204, or $5\frac{7}{8}$d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Pinjar.—Town in Akola District, Berar. Lat. 20° 33′ N., long. 77° 17′ E., 24 miles east of Akola town; pop. (1867), a little over 3000. Pinjar formerly had 2000 houses, of which only 700 now remain; its decline dates from 1772 A.D., when Madhají Bhonslá laid a heavy tax upon the people. A fine specimen of a Hemár Panti temple exists here, with a Sanskrit inscription. Police station.

Pinjaur (*Pinjore*).—Decayed town in Patiála State, Punjab. Lat. 30° 48′ N., long. 76° 59′ E.; situated at the confluence of two tributaries of the Ghaggar. Residence and pleasure-grounds of the Rájá. Thornton describes an ancient covered well and numerous fragments of Hindu sculpture and architecture that are found here. Fort dismantled by Bourquin, Sindhia's partisan leader.

Pinu or **Pim.**—River in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* PIN.

Piplianagar.—One of the mediatized chiefships in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. It is one of the shares of the land granted to Rájan Khán, brother of the notorious Pindári leader Chítu, on the settlement of Málwá.—*See* JABRIA BHIL.

Pippli.—*Tahsíl* of Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab; comprising the tract of country around Thaneswar, and embracing the three *parganás* of Thaneswar, Sháhábád, and Ládwa.

Pipplí.—Village on the Subarnarekha river, Balasor District, Bengal. Lat. 21° 34′ N., long. 87° 22′ E. The site of the first English settlement on this coast, founded in 1634 on the ruins of an earlier Portuguese location. Pipplí was ruined by the silting up of the river at its mouth. During the first half of the present century, the place lingered on as a silt-locked village; but a recent report states that no trace of the town now exists, at any rate under the same name.

Pírmaid.—Hill station in Travancore State, Madras; the centre of the northern coffee country of Travancore, with a growing European community. Lat. 9° 36′ N., long. 77° E.; average elevation, 3000 feet. Round the station are numerous coffee-gardens, occupying about 10,000 acres, of which a considerable proportion is in bearing. Fairly constructed roads communicate with Alleppi and Trevandrum on the west, and Madura on the east.

Pír Mangho (*Pír Magar*).—Valley, hot springs, temple, and tank in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind.—*See* MAGAR TALAO.

Pírnagar.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north and north-east by Biswán, on the east by Bári, on the south by Gundlamau, and on the west by Máchhrehta. Area, 44 square miles, or 27,956 acres, of which 17,770 acres are cultivated and 4224 cultivable. Pop. (1869), 15,295, viz. 14,220 Hindus and 1075 Muhammadans. The incidence of the Government land revenue is at the rate of 2s. 5½d. per cultivated acre; 1s. 11d. per acre of assessed area; and 1s. 6⅛d. per acre of total area. The *parganá* contains 54 villages, of which 15 are held under *tálukdárí* and 39 under *zamíndárí* tenure. Bais Kshattriyas own 48 villages; Bráhmans, 3; Káyasths, 2; and Musalmáns, 1. The villages are all small, none having a population exceeding 1000. There is not a single masonry house in the *parganá*, the people having a superstition against using burnt bricks or tiles for their dwellings. This superstition is not peculiar to Pírnagar, being found in many other parts of the District.

Pirozpur.—Subdivision of Bákarganj District, Bengal. Area, 626 square miles; villages, 639; houses, 79,010. Pop. (1872), 363,426, of whom 199,104, or 54·8 per cent., were Muhammadans; 164,277, or 45·2 per cent., Hindus; 31 Christians; and 14 of other denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 50·1 per cent.; average density of population, 581 per square mile; average number of inhabitants per village, 569; houses per square mile, 126; inmates per house, 4·6. This Subdivision comprises the three police circles of Kewári, Pirozpur, and Mathbári. It contained in 1870-71, one court, a regular police force of 69 men, and a village watch numbering 755; cost of Sub-

divisional administration returned at £1530. The Subdivisions of Pirozpur and MADARIPUR were originally established with the object of suppressing robberies on the Kachná river.

Pírpáintí (*Peerpointee*).—Town in Bhágalpur District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway. Export trade in grain, seeds, timber, etc. Police outpost. Lat. 25° 17′ 52″ N., long. 87° 27′ 40″ E.

Pír Panjál ('*The Saint's Mountain*').—A lofty range in the Native State of Kashmír (Cashmere); separating that State, on its south-western side, from the Punjab. Runs north-west and south-east, from the Baramula Pass to that of the Pír Panjál or Nándan Sár, a distance of about forty miles; the highest peaks attaining an elevation of about 16,500 feet above sea-level. The geological formation is basaltic,—an amygdaloidal trap, beautifully marked in some places. The range is named from a *pír* or Muhammadan saint, whose shrine is in the Pír Panjál Pass, and receives the offerings of all devout Musalmán travellers. The most picturesque road into Kashmír, and one of the easiest and most frequented, traverses the Pír Panjál Pass, and is known as the Gujavát and Pír Panjál route. The pass itself is crossed in the eleventh stage from Gujavát, between the halting-stations of Porhiána and Aliábád Sarái. The top of the pass, about six miles from Porhiána, is a fine grassy plateau about half a mile wide, with an elevation of about 11,500 feet, gradually sloping down to the Aliábád *sarái*. In clear weather the *minars* at Lahore are visible, though distant about 130 miles.

Pitári.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, about 4 miles north-west of Unao town. An ancient village, dating from the time of Rájá Unwant Sinh, the reputed founder of Unao. Pop. (1869), 3589, viz. 3410 Hindus and 179 Muhammadans.

Pithápur.—Headquarters town of the Pithápur *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 17° 6′ 45″ N., long. 82° 18′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 9246, living in 2318 houses. Post office, courts, and good schools. The town is also the centre of the *zamíndárí* of the same name, and the residence of the *zamíndár*. This estate, which pays a *peshkash* or fixed revenue of £25,000, contains 49 villages and (1871) 56,617 inhabitants.

Pithoragarh.—Cantonment in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 35′ 35″ N., long. 80° 14′ 30″ E. The troops are stationed on a low ridge in the Shore valley, for the protection of the Nepál frontier. *Bázár*, stone-built hospital. Fort Loudoun, 100 yards west of the lines, commands the whole place. Elevation above sea level, 5334 feet.

Pithoriá.—Estate in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; 20 miles north-west of Ságar town. Area, 51 square miles; comprising 26 villages. In 1818, when Ságar was made over by the Peshwá to the British, Ráo Rámchandra Ráo, a child ten years old, held Deorí and

the Pánch Mahál. In 1819, the Pánch Mahál was transferred to Sindhia, and the Ráo's mother received in lieu thereof a pension of £125 per month. On her death, the Ráo requested the Government to assign him a tract of land instead of the money payment. On this, Pithoriá with 18 other villages was granted to him; but as their revenue did not equal the required amount, the other 7 villages were added; making up the revenue to £1430 per annum. The estate has since deteriorated, and in 1870 the yearly revenue was only £454. Pithoriá, the chief village (lat. 24° 4′ N., long. 78° 38′ E.), with a population in 1870 of 1786, contains a fort, built about 1750 by Umráo Sinh, a Rájput, to whom the place had been granted rent-free by Govind Pandit, the Peshwá's lieutenant at Ságar. At the market, held every Thursday, little trade takes place.

Pítihrá (*Putera*).—Estate in the extreme south-east of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Area, 231 square miles; comprising 104 villages, and yielding a revenue of about £2267 to the Rájá. The whole estate, except 8 villages, lies in the Subdivision of Deorí. About 1730, the Gond Rájá of Gaurjhámar seized Deorí, but was expelled ten years later by the Marhattás. His son then plundered the country, till the Marhattàs pacified him by the cession of the four estates of Pítihrá, Muár, Keslí, and Tarará, containing 8 villages. He died in 1747, and his grandson Kíráj Sinh obtained from the Marhattás in 1798 another estate, called Ballái, comprising 53 villages. At the cession of Ságar to the British in 1818, Kiráj Sinh was not disturbed; but on his death in 1827, 30 villages in Ballái were resumed, and the remainder were secured to his son Balwant Sinh. The headquarters of the Rájá are at Pítihrá, a village on the Narbadá (Nerbudda river); pop. about 800.

Pitlád.—Chief town of the Pitlád Subdivision of Baroda State, Bombay. Lat. 22° 29′ N., long. 72° 50′ E.; pop. (1872), 15,109.

Plassey (*Palásí*, from *palás*, the red flower of the Butea frondosa).—Battle-field on the Bhágirathi river, Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 47′ N., long. 88° 17′ 45″ E. Of this memorable scene of Clive's victory over Suráj-ud-daulá, on the 23d June 1757, only a small fragment now remains. The Bhágirathi, on whose left or east bank the battle was fought, has eaten away the scene of the strife; as the Jalangí river, in the same District, has eaten away the city of Nadiyá, the ancient capital of Bengal. In 1801, 3000 trees of Clive's famous mango grove were still standing; only one now (1873) survives the ravages of the river and of time. A general of the Nawáb, who fell in the battle, lies buried beneath it. As early as 1801, the river had eaten away the actual field of battle; and a traveller recorded in that year that 'a few miserable huts, literally overhanging the water, are the only remains of the celebrated Plassey.' The neighbourhood relapsed into jungle, and

was long a favourite haunt of river *dakáits.* Part of the site is now covered by the waters of the Bhágirathi, the rest stretches out as a richly cultivated plain; and the solitary surviving tree of the historic mango grove is held sacred by the Muhammadans. The high road from Calcutta *viâ* Krishnagar to Berhampur passes close by the field; 96 miles north of Calcutta, and 22 south of Berhampur.

Poddatúru.—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras.—*See* PRODDUTUR.

Poicha.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 3 square miles. There are 7 chiefs. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £200; tribute of £150 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Poini.—River rising in the extreme north of North Arcot District, Madras, and flowing about 45 miles south to the Palár between Vellúr (Vellore) and Arcot. Largely used for irrigation by means of anicuts. CHITTUR is on its banks.

Point Calimere (*Kallimedu*).—The most southerly point of the Coromandel coast, Madras.—*See* CALIMERE.

Point, False.—Cape, with lighthouse, on the west coast of the Bay of Bengal.—*See* FALSE POINT.

Point Palmyras.—Headland in Cuttack District, Bengal.—*See* PALMYRAS POINT.

Pokaran (*Pokharn*).—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 26° 55′ N., and long. 71° 57′ 45″ E., on the route from Phulodi to Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere), 66 miles east of the latter place. It is situated close to a deserted town of the same name, and contained when Thornton wrote (1862) 3000 houses. Surrounded by an uncemented stone wall. A conspicuous temple, on an elevated situation, marks the site of the old deserted city, and near it are the monuments of the deceased members of the chief's family. Being situated on one of the great commercial routes between Eastern Rájputána and Sind, the transit trade is considerable.

Pokhaur.—Town, lake, and place of pilgrimage in Ajmere-Mhairwára District, Rájputána.—*See* PUSHKAR.

Pokri.—Village in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 20′ N., long. 79° 15′ E. Small copper mines, once very productive, but now of little value. Elevation above sea level, 6110 feet.

Pol.—State in the Mahi Kánta Agency, Bombay.—*See* PAL.

Polávaram.—Ancient *zamíndárí* (estate) in the 'Northern Circars,' Godávari District, Madras, containing 128 villages, and owned by Reddi Lakshmi Náráyan Devu. Assessment imposed at the Permanent Settlement (1803), £10,570. Previous to that time, this *zamíndárí*, like the others in the District, was the scene of constant disputes and struggles (*see* GODAVARI DISTRICT, Vol. III. p. 411). Between 1785 and 1790 especially, the disturbances became so serious that it was necessary to

repress them with the help of the military. Again, in 1800, the *zamíndár's* fort, situated on the Godávari river, was captured and destroyed, and the whole tract was placed under martial law. The present population (1871) of Polávaram village (lat. 17° 14′ 50″ N., long. 81° 40′ 40″ E.) is 2734.

Polekurru (*Polkuru*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 47′ N., long. 82° 18′ E.; pop. (1871), 6429, inhabiting 1333 houses.

Poli.—Town in Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras. Lat. 14° 12′ 45″ N., long. 79° 13′ E.; pop. (1871), 6660, inhabiting 3569 houses.

Pollachi.—Headquarters town of Pollachi *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 39′ 20″ N., long. 77° 3′ 5″ E.; pop. (1871), 4922, inhabiting 724 houses.

Pollilúr.—Town in Conjevaram *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras. Lat. 12° 58′ 20″ N., long. 79° 45′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 933, inhabiting 139 houses.

Polúr.—Headquarters town of Polúr *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 30′ 45″ N., long. 79° 9′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 5216, inhabiting 718 houses.

Ponáni.—Headquarters town of Ponáni *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 10° 47′ 10″ N., long. 75° 57′ 55″ E.; pop. (1871), 11,472, inhabiting 2102 houses. A busy Moplá seaport, the most important between Cochin and Calicut, trading largely in salt, and possessing water communication to a railway station (Tirúr) and to Cochin and Travancore. As the *kasbá* (headquarters) of a *táluk*, Ponáni has courts, a custom-house, and a hospital. It is inhabited almost exclusively by Muhammadans (Moplás), whose Tángal or high priest lives here; and it is the centre of Musalmán education on the coast, possessing a kind of religious college, which confers degrees.

In 1662, after the Dutch took Cochin, the English retired to Ponáni. In 1782, Colonel Macleod landed troops here from Bombay, and was joined by Colonel Humberstone's force. The latter had given up the projected siege of Pálghát, and, abandoning the siege train at Mangarikota, fell back by forced marches, followed and harassed by Tipú and Lally. Once within Macleod's lines, however, the united forces turned on the pursuers and repulsed them. Owing to the death of Haidar Alí, the attack was not renewed. When Colonel Hartley (1790) made his brilliant descent upon the west coast, the Ponáni people gave in their adhesion readily.

Ponáni.—River rising in the Anamalái Mountains, Madras. It flows past Pálghát across Malabar District, and enters the sea at Ponáni town, in lat. 10° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 58′ E. It is about 120 miles in length, and flows for about 70 of these parallel to the railway; it is navigable for many months to a considerable distance above its mouth, and is largely used for timber-floating.

Pondamalái.—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras.—*See* PUNAMALLU.

Pondicherri (*Puducheri*, *Puthuvai*, *Pulcheri*).—Chief settlement of the French possessions in the East Indies; surrounded by the Cuddalore *táluk* of South Arcot District, Madras. The town lies in lat. 11° 55′ 57″ N., and long. 79° 52′ 33″ E. Pop. (1876), 156,094. 'The first French settlement at Pondicherri,' says Mr. Garstin, in a summary of the history of the place, 'was in 1674, under François Martin. In 1693, it was captured by the Dutch, but restored in 1699. It was besieged four times by the English. The first siege, under Admiral Boscawen, was unsuccessful. The second, under Colonel (afterwards Sir) Eyre Coote, in 1761, resulted in the capture of the place; it was restored in 1763. It was again besieged and captured in 1778, by Sir Hector Munro, and restored in 1785. It was captured a third time, by Colonel Braithwaite, in 1793, and finally restored in 1816.

'The territory of Pondicherri comprises three Districts—Pondicherri, Villianúr, and Báhúr—containing 93 large villages and 141 hamlets. Its area is 29,122 hectares = 112·4 square miles, and its population, according to the most recent returns, 156,094 souls. The town of Pondicherri is divided into two parts, the White Town and the Black Town, separated from one another by a canal. The White Town is by the seaside, and is well built. The chief public buildings are—Government house, the parish church, the Foreign Missions church, two pagodas, the new *bázár*, the clock tower, the lighthouse, the barracks, the military hospital, and the town hall. There is also an exceedingly neat and well-cared-for iron screw-pile pier, which puts that at Madras to the blush; and a supply of drinking water has been brought into the town which for purity is perhaps unrivalled in any other town in Southern India.'

A colonial college and 172 other schools, attended by nearly 5000 children, provide for the educational wants of the territory; and a public library of 12,000 volumes, a Catholic mission, 2 orphanages, and 2 refuges are among its institutions. The chief industries are weaving and dyeing. The former has of late years languished in consequence of European competition, but there are still 4000 weavers. The revenue of Pondicherri is about 4 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000). In 1879, railway communication was opened between Pondicherri and the South Indian system.

Poodoocottah.—State and town in Madras.—*See* PUDUKOTTAI.

Poo-gan-doung.—Revenue circle in Rangoon District, British Burma.—*See* PU-GAN-DOUNG.

Poo-hto.—Revenue circle in Thayet District, British Burma.—*See* PU-HTO.

Poo-loo.—Creek in Bassein District, British Burma.—*See* PU-LU.

Poo-loo-pyeng-ma-goon.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, British Burma.—*See* PU-LU-PYENG-MA-GUN.

Poona (*Púna*).—A British District in the Deccan, Bombay, lying between 17° 54′ and 19° 23′ N. lat., and between 73° 24′ and 75° 13′ E. long. Area (according to the Parliamentary Abstract published in 1879), 5099 square miles; population in 1872, 907,235 souls. It is bounded on the north by the Districts of Násik and Ahmednagar; on the east by those of Ahmednagar and Sholápur; on the south by the Nira river, separating it from Satára and the estate of the chief of Phaltán; and on the west by Bhor State and the Sahyádri Hills. The administrative headquarters are at POONA city.

Physical Aspects.—Towards the west, the country is undulating, and intersected by numerous spurs of the Sahyádri range, which break off in a south-easterly direction, becoming lower as they pass eastwards, and in the end sinking to the general level of the plain. On the extreme western border, the land is so rugged and cut up by ravines, that on the slopes and sides of the hills a system of spade cultivation takes the place of ordinary tillage by bullocks and ploughs. Along the western border of the District, the Sahyádri Hills form a barrier inaccessible except by a few difficult passes or *gháts*. Of these, the Borghát, traversed both by a road and a railway, is the only line fitted for wheeled vehicles. The spurs which form the main line of the Sahyádri Mountains have all the flat tops and steep sides common to basaltic hills. Within the limits of the District not a few of the hills have had their sides hewn into rock temples, or their summits crowned with fortresses. Many streams rise in the Sahyádri range, and flow eastwards, until they join the Bhíma river, which passes through the District from north-west to south-east. The water of the rivers is good for all purposes, and all of them are sources of supply to the many villages along their banks. About 10 miles south-west of Poona, the Khadakwásla Lake, with an area of 5½ square miles, supplies water to the towns of Poona and Kirki. The District is not rich in minerals, but trap rock fit for road-making and stone for building purposes are found. There are no tracts producing large timber of any value. Of late years, efforts to change some of the grass plains or *kurans* into reserves of the *bábul* tree (Acacia arabica) have met with much success. Except in the west, where tigers, leopards, bears, and *sámbhar* deer are to be found, the District contains no wild animals larger than the antelope, boar, and wolf.

History.—The District of Poona, and the adjacent tracts of SATARA and SHOLAPUR,—the home of the Marhattás, and the birthplace of the dynasty,—stretch for about 150 miles along the Sahyádri Gháts between the 17th and 19th degrees of latitude, and extend at one point as far as 160 miles inland. The great Marhattá capitals—Poona,

Satára, Kolhápur—lie close to the Gháts under the shelter of some hill fort; while the Musalmán capitals—Ahmednagar, Bijápur, Bedar, Gúlbarga—are walled cities out in the plains. The history of the three Districts forms the subject of a monograph by Mr. W. W. Loch of the Bombay Civil Service, from which the following section is much condensed. The three Districts can be best historically considered together, and they are so treated here; but the reader is also referred for topographical details to the articles on SATARA and SHOLAPUR. The rise and progress of the Marhattá power, on the other hand, forms an important and essential part of the general history of INDIA, and will be only very briefly noticed in this place.

Of little consequence under the early Musalmán rulers of the Deccan; growing into importance under the kings of Bijápur and Ahmednagar; rising with the rise of the State founded by Sivají the Great in the 17th century,—these Districts of Poona, Satára, and Kolhápur became in the 18th century the seat of an empire reaching from the Punjab to the confines of Bengal, and from Delhi to Mysore.

Early in the Christian era, Maháráshtra is said to have been ruled by the great Saleváhana, whose capital was at Páitan on the Godávari. At a later period, a powerful dynasty of Chálukya Rájputs reigned over a large part of Maháráshtra and the Karnatic, with their capital at Kalliáni, not far from Sholápur. The founder of the line, Jáisinh, had overthrown another Rájput tribe, the Pállavas. The Chálukyas rose to their greatest power under Tálapa Deva in the 10th century, and became extinct about the end of the 12th century, when the Jádhav Rájás of Deogiri or Daulatábád became supreme. This was the dynasty which was ruling at the time of the Musalmán invasion in 1294. We find, besides, that there was a Rájá at Punálla, near Kolhápur, at the end of the 12th century, whose power extended as far north as the Nira river. He was conquered by Singhan, the Rájput Rájá of Deogiri, whose camp is shown at Mhasurna, near Pusesauli, in Satára District.

The first Musalmán invasion took place in 1294, but the Jádhav dynasty was not finally extinguished until 1312. The conquest of the country was long imperfect; and we find Ferishta recording an attack made by Muhammad Tughlak, the Emperor of Delhi, in 1340, on Nágnák, a Koli chief, who held the strong fort of Kondhána (now Singarh), which was only reduced after eight months' siege.

The Deccan remained subject to the Emperor of Delhi till 1345 A.D., when the Musalmán nobles revolted from Muhammad Tughlak, and established the Báhmani dynasty, whose first capital was at Gúlbarga, about 60 miles east of Sholápur. The open country acknowledged the power of the Báhmani sovereigns without a struggle. In the year 1426, the capital was changed by Ahmad Sháh Báhmani to Bidar, said

by Ferishta to have been an old Hindu capital, about 100 miles farther east.

A terrible famine, known as the Durgádevi, is said to have lasted throughout Maháráshtra for twelve years—from 1396 to 1408. Taking advantage of the general depopulation, the local Marhattá chiefs obtained possession of the hills and strong places, which had been conquered by the Musalmáns. Several expeditions were sent by the Báhmani kings to recover the Ghát country, but without success, until, in the year 1472, Mahmúd Gáwán, the great minister of the last independent Báhmani king, made another effort; he forced his way through the forests, and did not leave the country till he had reduced the lesser forts and finally Kelna itself.

Subsequently, he made a new distribution of the Báhmani dominions. Junnar became the headquarters of a Province which comprehended Indápur, Wái, the Mándesh, Belgáum, and parts of the Konkan. The other districts on the Bhíma were under Bijápur, while Sholápur, Gulbarga, and Purenda formed a separate Province. Yusaf Adíl Sháh, the founder of the Bijápur dynasty, was made governor of Bijápur; Ahmad Sháh, the founder of the Ahmednagar dynasty, was sent to Junnar; Gúlbarga was entrusted to Dastur Dinar, an Abyssinian; while Purenda, Sholápur, and 11 districts were held by two brothers, Zein Khán and Khwája Jahán.

When Ahmad Sháh went to Junnar about the year 1485, he found that the fort of Junnar Shivner had fallen into the hands of the Marhattás, and he at once reduced it. He then took Cháwand, Logarh, Purandhar, Kondhána (Singarh), and many forts in the Konkan, and brought his charge into good order.

The fall of the Báhmani dynasty was now at hand, and the great nobles had become virtually independent. The first who rose in revolt was Bahádur Geláni, who governed the country south of the Wárna river; he was soon defeated and killed. Then Zein-ud-dín, the *jágírdár* of Chákan, rebelled with the aid of Yusaf Adíl Sháh. Next, in the year 1489, Ahmad Sháh threw off his allegiance; he was attacked by Zein-ud-dín, but the latter was driven into the fort of Chákan; the fort was stormed, and Zein-ud-dín killed in the fight.

About this time, Yusaf Adíl Sháh of Bijápur also asserted his independence, and made himself master of the country as far north as the Bhíma. The new kings of the Deccan made a kind of partition treaty in 1491, by which the country north of the Nira and east of Karmála, together with some of the present Sholápur Subdivisions, were assigned to the Nizám Sháhi king, while the country south of the Nira and Bhíma was allotted to Bijápur. The lesser chiefs, who had joined in the revolt against the Báhmani kings, were gradually subdued by the

more powerful. Dastur Dinar, who held Gúlbarga, was defeated in 1495, and again in 1498, by Yusaf Adíl Sháh; but he returned after each defeat, and it was not till 1504 that he was slain, and Gúlbarga annexed to the Bijápur dominions.

In 1511, Sholápur was annexed to Bijápur. Amír Berid took Gúlbarga; but Kamál Khán was soon after assassinated, and Gúlbarga recovered. Purandhar and the neighbouring tracts remained for many years under Khwája Jahán, who seems to have been a semi-independent vassal of the king of Ahmednagar.

In 1523, as a condition of peace between the kings of Bijápur and Ahmednagar after one of their many wars, the sister of Ismáil Adíl Sháh was given in marriage to Burhán Nizám Sháh, and Sholápur was promised as her dowry, but it was not given up. The claim to Sholápur by the Nizám Sháhi kings was the cause of constant wars during the next forty years. At last the Musalmán kings, alarmed at the power of Rámráj, Hindu king of Bijánagar, formed a league against him (1563-64 A.D.). Next year (January 1565) was fought the great battle of Tálikot, which resulted in the death of Rámráj and the complete defeat of his army.

For some years there was peace; but in 1590, Diláwar Khán, who had been regent of Bijápur, fled to Ahmednagar, and urged Burhán Nizám Sháh II. to try and recover Sholápur. In the year 1592, they advanced into the Bijápur territory, but Ibráhim Adíl Sháh managed to win back Diláwar Khán; and having got him into his power, sent him as a prisoner to the fort of Satára, and quickly forced the Ahmednagar troops to retire.

Soon after this, the Mughal princes of Delhi began to invade the Deccan, and in 1600 Ahmednagar fell. The country was, however, only temporarily subdued, and was speedily recovered by Malek Ambar, an Abyssinian chief, who made Aurangábád, then called Kharki, the capital of the Nizám Sháhí kings. In 1616, Sháh Jahán again conquered the greater part of the Ahmednagar territory; but in 1629, the country was given up by the Mughal governor, Khán Jahán Lodi. A war ensued, and in 1633 Daulatábád was taken, and the king made prisoner; but Sháhjí Bhonslá, one of the leading Marhattá chiefs, set up another member of the royal family, overran the Gangthari and Poona Districts, and, with the help of the Bijápur troops, drove back the Mughals from Purenda. Sháh Jahán now marched into the Deccan in person, besieged Bijápur, and forced the king to come to terms, 1636 A.D. The country seized by Sháhjí was then easily recovered; that chief surrendered in 1637, and the Nizám Sháhí dynasty came to an end. The country north of the Bhíma, including Junnar, was annexed to the Mughal territory, and that south of it was made over to Bijápur. Sháhjí took service under the King of Bijápur, and received

the *jágír* of Poona and Supa, to which Indápur, Bárámati, and the Máwal country near Poona were added.

It was under the Bijápur kings that the Marhattás first began to make themselves conspicuous. The Bárgis or light horse furnished by the Marhattá chiefs played a prominent part in the wars with the Mughals; the less important forts were left in their hands, and the revenue was collected by Hindu officers under the Musalmán *mokásdárs*. Several of the old Marhattá families received the offices of *deshmukh* and *sardeshmukh*. The kingdom of Bijápur survived that of Ahmednagar by fifty years; but, weakened by internal dissensions, it was gradually falling to pieces. This was the opportunity for the predatory Marhattá chiefs; and a leader arose in Sivají, the son of Sháhjí Bhonslá, who knew how to unite the Marhattás into a nation by inspiring them with a hatred for their Musalmán masters, and how to take advantage of the constant quarrels and increasing weakness of those masters.

The story of the rise and progress of the great Marhattá power belongs to the general history of the country. It will be found in the article on INDIA, and need not be repeated here.

With the fall of Bájí Ráo, the last of the Peshwás, in 1818, the Marhattá power ended; and since then, no events of political importance have taken place in Poona District. Throughout the Mutiny, peace was maintained, and no open outbreak took place, though the mutiny of a regiment at Kolhápur gave rise to uneasiness, and there was undoubtedly a good deal of disaffection at Satára among the classes whom the annexation of the country had impoverished. The notorious Náná Sahib was the adopted son of Bájí Ráo.

Population.—The Census of 1872, which was taken over an area of 5099 square miles, showed a total population of 907,235 persons, residing in 1184 towns and villages, and in 142,687 houses; density of population, 177·92 per square mile; houses per square mile, 27·98; persons per village, 766; persons per house, 6·36. Classified according to sex, there were 466,757 males and 440,478 females; proportion of males, 51·45 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years — males, 171,135, and females, 156,662; total children, 327,797, or 36·13 per cent. of the population. Classified according to religion—862,165 were Hindus; 39,583 Musalmáns; 1243 Pársis; 3862 Christians; 281 Jews; and 101 'others.' The only specially interesting class of the population are the Rámusis, a hill tribe found chiefly in the west of the District.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supports (according to the Census Returns of 1872) 473,181 persons, or 52 per cent. of the entire population. As in other parts of the Deccan, the chief varieties of the soil are black, red, and *barad* or stony. The black soil, found generally near rivers, is by far the richest of these three varieties. The red soil is almost

always shallow and coarser than the black. The stony soil is found on the slopes of hills. It is nothing but trap rock in the first stage of disintegration; but if favoured by plentiful and frequent rains, it repays the scanty labour which its tillage requires. Of 1,938,741 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 1,875,670 acres, or 96·74 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1875-76. Of these, 246,205 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 1,629,465 acres under actual cultivation (26,968 acres of which were twice cropped), grain crops occupied 1,375,738 acres, or 83·05 per cent.; pulses, 104,076, or 6·28 per cent.; oil-seeds, 71,049, or 4·28 per cent.; fibres, 61,928, or 3·73 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 43,642, or 2·63 per cent.

Rates of interest vary from 9 to 36 per cent. Labourers earn 4½d. a day; bricklayers and carpenters, 1s. 3d. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1875-76 were, for a rupee (2s.)—wheat, 26 lbs.; *joár*, 42 lbs.; rice, 22 lbs.; and *dál* (split-peas), 34 lbs.

Natural Calamities.—With much of its rainfall cut off by the western hills, large tracts to the east of the District have a very uncertain water supply. In the year 1792-93, no rain fell till October, and the price of grain rose to 4 lbs. for the rupee. In 1802, owing to the devastation of the country by the Marhattá troops, the price of grain is said to have risen to 1 lb. for the rupee. In 1824-25 and 1845-46, the failure of rain caused great scarcity. In 1866-67, more than £8000 of land revenue was remitted, and £2000 spent in relief to the destitute. Poona was one of the Districts affected by the famine of 1876-77. Besides about 310 miles of partly bridged and partly metalled roads, 106 miles of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway cross the District from west to east.

Trade and Commerce.—The general trade of the District is small. The chief manufactures are silk robes, coarse cotton cloth and blankets. The brass and silver work of Poona is much admired; among the other specialities may be mentioned toys, small clay figures carefully dressed, and ornaments, baskets, fans, etc. of *khas-khas* grass, decked with beetles' wings. The manufacture of paper, formerly of some importance, has of late years ceased.

Administration.—The revenue of the District in 1876-77, under all heads — imperial, local, and municipal — amounted to a total of £213,667, showing, on a population of 907,235, an incidence per head of 4s. 7d. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £116,787, or 54·66 per cent. The other principal items are stamps and excise. The local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education yielded a total sum of £24,610. There are 11 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 135,554 persons. Their receipts amounted to £16,498, and the incidence of

taxation varied from 2¼d. to 4s. 5d. per head. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 5 Assistants, of whom 3 are covenanted civilians. For the settlement of civil disputes there are in all 8 courts, and the number of suits decided in 1876-77 was 9656. Twenty-one officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police in 1876-77 was 1094 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 829 of the population. The total cost of this force was £1667, equal to 6s. 8¼d. per square mile of area and ¼d. per head of the population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 2746, being 1 to every 330 of the population. There is one jail in the District. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855-56, there were only 94 schools, with a total of 4206 pupils. In 1876-77, there were 251 schools, with 12,926 pupils, or, on an average, 1 school to every 4 inhabited villages. There are 3 libraries, and 8 vernacular newspapers were published in 1876.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is dry and invigorating, and suits European constitutions better than that of most other parts of the Bombay Presidency. The average annual rainfall during the five years ending 1876, was 33 inches. The prevailing diseases are fever and affections of the eyes, skin, and bowels. Twelve dispensaries afforded medical relief to 2415 in-door and 53,118 out-door patients in 1876-77, and 21,151 persons were vaccinated. Vital statistics showed a death-rate of 21·01 per thousand.

Poona (*Púna*).—The military capital of the Deccan, and from July to November the seat of the Government of Bombay. A station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 119 miles south-east of Bombay. It is situated in lat. 18° 30′ 41″ N., and long. 73° 55′ 21″ E., 1850 feet above the level of the sea, and, in a straight line, about 63 miles distant from the coast. Area, including suburbs, about 4 square miles; pop. (1872), 90,436; municipal revenue, £9921. The city stands on the right bank of the Muta river. Much of the country round is barren and rocky, and to the east stretches an open plain. But to the north and west, blocks of low flat-topped hillocks, and, to the south, the line of hills that on the west ends in the bolder outline of the Sinhgarh fort, relieve the monotony of the scene. Close at hand, on the north, the confluence of the streams of the Muta and Mula; through the heart of the town, the line of the Kharakwásla Canal; and on the south, the lake and solitary peak of Parvatí, are objects of interest. Gardens on every side, and thickets of acacia along the banks of the rivers, give much of the neighbourhood a green, well-clothed appearance. The city extends along the Muta, for about 1½ mile inland, varying in height from 30 to 70 feet above the river. Its length is about 2 miles from east to west, and its breadth about 1¾ mile, the

total area being about $2\frac{1}{2}$ square miles. For police and other purposes, the area of the town is divided among 18 wards or *pets*. The chief streets run north and south. Though broad in parts, they are all more or less crooked, none of them offering an easy carriage-way from one end to the other. From east to west, the only thoroughfare is by lanes, narrow, short, and interrupted. Of 11,434 houses, 1416, or 12 per cent., are of the better sort. Most of the houses are of more than one storey, their walls built of a framework of wood filled in with brick or mud, and with roofs of tile. A few residences of the old gentry are still maintained in good order, but the greater number are in disrepair or ruin. Within many of the blocks of buildings that line the streets are large courtyards, entered by a doorway, and crowded all round with the huts and hovels of the poorer classes.

Towards the north of the town is the military cantonment, with a population of 9600. Within cantonment limits, northwards to the Muta-Mula river, and for 2 miles along the road leading west to the cantonment of Kirkee (Khadki), are the residences of the greater part of the European population.

The first mention of Poona in history seems to have been in 1604, when it was granted by the Sultán of Ahmednagar to Malojí, the grandfather of Sivají the Great. In 1637, the grant was confirmed by the Sultán to Sháhjí, father of Sivají. In 1663, during the operations conducted against Sivají by order of Aurangzeb, the imperial viceroy, Sháista Khán, took possession of this open town, from which, when surprised a few days afterwards by Sivají, he had great difficulty in making his escape. His son and most of his guard were cut to pieces, and he himself wounded. A powerful force, however, immediately reinstated the discomfited commander. In 1667, Aurangzeb restored Poona to Sivají; but under the sway of his successor, Sambájí, it was occupied by Khán Jahán, an officer of the Emperor. On the Peshwá obtaining supremacy in the Marhattá confederacy, the chief seat of Government was removed from Satára to Poona. In 1763, Nizám Alí of Haidarábád (Hyderábád) sacked the town, and burned such parts of it as were not ransomed. In the struggle between the successive Peshwás and their nominal subordinates, Sindhia and Holkar, Poona suffered many vicissitudes, until, in 1802, by the provisions of the Treaty of Bassein, the Peshwá admitted a British subsidiary force to be stationed there. After the deposition of the Peshwá Báji Ráo (1818), the city became the headquarters of a British District, as well as the principal cantonment in the Deccan.

With the heat of April and May, tempered by a sea-breeze, a moderate rainfall, and strong cool winds, the climate is agreeable and healthy. During the last twenty-five years, Poona has been steadily growing in size. In 1851, its population was returned at 73,209; by 1863, it was

supposed to have risen to about 80,000; and in 1872, it was found to have reached 90,436. Of the whole population in 1872, 80,800 were Hindus, 9013 Musalmáns, 262 Christians, and 361 'others.' Though Poona is no longer so great a centre of trade and industry as it was under the Peshwás, there are still about 250 handlooms for the weaving of fabrics of silk and cotton; and articles of brass, copper, iron, and clay are made in the city. Throughout Western India, Poona workers have earned a reputation for the manufacture of silver and gold jewellery, combs, dice, and other small articles of ivory; of fans, baskets, and trays of *khas-khas* grass ornamented with peacocks' feathers and beetles' wings; and of small carefully dressed clay figures representing the natives of India. As a civil station, Poona is the residence of the usual District officers, and it is also the headquarters of the Survey, Revenue, and Police Commissioners of the southern Division of the Presidency. As a military station, it is the headquarters of a General of Division, of the Quarter-Master-General and Adjutant-General of the Bombay Army, and a military force, which generally consists of European and Native infantry, artillery, and cavalry. Besides a female normal school, a training college for preparing teachers for vernacular and Anglo-vernacular schools, and several Government and private vernacular, Anglo-vernacular, and English schools, the city of Poona has a Government first-grade High School, and two colleges—the Deccan College, teaching classics, mathematics, and philosophy; and the Engineering College, with special training for civil engineers. The other principal public buildings are the Legislative Council Hall, the Sassoon Hospital, Jewish Synagogue, military pay offices, barracks, etc.

Poonamallee.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras. —*See* PUNAMALLU.

Poon-na-riep.—Village in Henzada District, British Burma.—*See* PUN-NA-RIEP.

Poo-zwon-doung.—River of British Burma.—*See* PU-ZWON-DOUNG.

Porakád (*Porca*).—Town in Alleppi Subdivision, Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 21′ 30″ N., long. 76° 25′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 2922, dwelling in 743 houses. Porakád was formerly a separate principality, known as Chambagacheri, and the principal port of the country; it passed to Cochin in 1678, and to Travancore in 1746. Both the Dutch and Portuguese had a footing here, and the remains of the Portuguese fort still stand. The seaport has been ruined by the prosperity of ALLEPPI.

Porbandar.—Native State in the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Bombay. Area, 535 square miles, with 103 villages; pop. (1872), 72,077. There are many rivers, of which the largest—the Somti, Warlu, Minsár, and Ojad—contain water generally throughout the year. The climate is good. The limestone known as Porbandar stone, found

over almost the whole of the State, is chiefly quarried in the Barda Hills. Silk of good quality, and cotton cloth are manufactured. The chief harbours are PORBANDAR, Madhupur, and Miáni. The ruler executed the usual engagements in 1807. The present (1876-77) chief, Ráná Srí Vikmatjí, a Hindu of the Jethwa clan of Rájputs, is fifty-eight years old. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, and has power to try for capital offences, without permission from the Political Agent, any person except British subjects. He administers the affairs of his State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £40,000; and pays a tribute of £3350 jointly to the British Government, the Gáekwár of Baroda, and the Nawáb of Junágarh. He maintains a military force of 683 men. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. There are 7 schools in the State, with a total number of 538 pupils. Porbandar ranked as a first-class State until 1869; and since then, as a State of the third class.

Porbandar.—Chief town of Porbandar State, Bombay; situated on the western coast of Káthiáwár, in lat. 21° 37′ 10″ N., and long. 69° 48′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 14,563. Though a bar prevents the entrance of ships of any great size into the port, it is much frequented by craft of from 12 to 80 tons burthen. In spite of the levy of heavy customs dues, the trade is considerable, including, besides a local traffic with the Konkan and Malabar coast, a brisk trade with the ports of Sind, Baluchistán, the Persian Gulf, Arabia, and the west coast of Africa.

Port Blair.—Principal harbour of the ANDAMAN ISLANDS.—(Vol. i. pp. 194 *sqq.*)

Port Canning (or *Matlá*).—Decayed town and port in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 19′ 15″ N., and long. 88° 43′ 20″ E. It occupies a tongue of land round which sweep the collected waters of the Bidyádharí, Karatoyá, and Athárabánká rivers, forming the MATLA estuary, which then takes a fairly straight course southwards to the sea. Port Canning is now (1879) abandoned as an attempted seat of maritime trade; but before entering into its history, I may mention its capabilities when I visited it in 1869-70, in case it should ever be resuscitated. The junction of the rivers formed a fine sheet of water, with 21 feet at dead low tide under the jetties which the Port Canning Company had constructed. Ships drawing 23 feet could discharge their cargo without grounding, as they would lie 6 feet from the jetty side. Seven moorings were laid down, one off each jetty, the maximum length of the moorings being from 320 to 420 feet. Five jetties were formed on the Matlá river opposite Canning Strand, and two on the Bidyádharí off the rice-mills. These mills were and still are the most conspicuous feature in the landscape. There was also a desolate-looking hotel with a small railway station. This was all the town, with the exception of a few native huts and thatched bungalows. The rest

was marsh land. The railway line did not reach to any of the moorings; but goods had to be landed at the ends of the jetties, then carried by coolies to railway waggons at the shore end of the jetties, then hand-shunted along a tramway to the railway station, where an engine was finally attached to them and took them off to Calcutta, 28 miles distant. The pilotage and port-dues on the Matlá were reported as practically one-half of those on the Húglí; the hire of Government moorings and boats, and harbour-master's charges, being about the same at both ports.

The following narrative of the attempt to form a seat of maritime trade at Port Canning is condensed from official papers furnished by the Bengal Government.

The first step towards creating a town and municipality on the Matlá appears to have been made in 1853, when, in consequence of the deterioration of the navigation of the Húglí, which it was feared at that time was rapidly closing, the Calcutta Chamber of Commerce addressed Government on the necessity of providing an auxiliary shipping port on the Matlá, and opening communication with Calcutta by means of a railway or canal. Lord Dalhousie's Government, although not participating in these fears, took the precaution of acquiring the land on the proposed site of the new port, afterwards named Port Canning, and in July 1853, lot No. 54 of the Sundarban Grants was purchased for the sum of £1100 from the grantee; the whole comprising upwards of 8000 acres, or 25,000 *bighás* of land, of which about one-seventh was cultivated, the remainder being jungle. About the same time, the adjoining lot having lapsed to Government, a portion, consisting of 650 acres, was reserved for the town. A committee was appointed to survey and report upon the site. Plans for laying out a town were submitted, and a position was fixed upon for the terminus of a railway to connect the new port with Calcutta.

In June 1862, the provisions of the Municipal Act were extended to the town; and in 1863, the whole of the Government proprietary right in the land was made over to the Municipality, in trust for the town of Canning, subject to the control of Government. Rules were also passed empowering the Commissioners to grant leases and to borrow money on the security of the land, but the Government itself declined to advance any loan.

The expenditure necessary for the various works was estimated at upwards of £200,000; and the Municipality, in November 1863, with the sanction of Government, opened a loan of £100,000 upon debentures, at 5½ per cent. interest, redeemable in five years. The privilege of commuting debentures for lands in freehold or leasehold at certain rates was also allowed. Not more than £26,500, however, was subscribed; and early in 1864 the Municipal Commissioners again

applied to Government for a loan of £45,000, which was refused, except on the condition that the mercantile community should simultaneously contribute the remainder of the £200,000 required for the town.

The scheme of forming the Port Canning Company dates from a proposal made in 1864 by Mr. Ferdinand Schiller, one of the Municipal Commissioners, to raise the means of undertaking the works essential to the development of the port, consequent on the refusal of Government to advance the funds except on conditions which the Municipality found impossible of fulfilment. Mr. Schiller's proposals were to advance the sum of £25,000 to the Municipality, on condition of receiving from them certain concessions, namely—(1) the gift in freehold of 100 acres of land in the centre of the town; and (2) the exclusive right of constructing tramways, wharves, jetties, and landing accommodation, and of levying rates upon the same for fifty years, subject to the control and regulation of the Commissioners. Mr. Schiller also undertook on the part of himself and his assignees—(1) to excavate within two years a boat-dock, 2500 feet in length by 200 feet in width and 10 feet in depth, on the assigned land; (2) to provide for the conservation and protection of the river bank along the entire length of the Commissioners' property facing the Matlá; (3) to pay the Commissioners one-third of all profits from these works exceeding 10 per cent. The right of purchasing the completed works at original cost at the expiration of fifty years was reserved to the Municipality, and in the event of non-purchase, an extension of the term for another twenty-five years was stipulated. These terms were agreed to by Government, and the payment of the loan of £25,000 to the Municipality was made in March 1865.

In March 1866, the Government of India consented to a loan of £45,000 on security of the property of the Municipality, without interest, repayable in five years, for which debentures were issued bearing dates from April 1866 to August 1868. Under the conditions of commutation mentioned above, debentures to the extent of £8760 were converted for lands.

In the meantime, the prospectus of the Port Canning Company had been issued, in January 1865, accompanied by an announcement that the share list was closed. The shares rose in value at an unprecedented rate, till they attained a premium of £1200 in Bombay and £1000 in Calcutta. It was soon found, however, that the sanguine expectations of projectors and speculators were not likely to be realized, and the shares fell as rapidly as they had risen. Subsequently, dissensions arose between the directors and the shareholders, resulting in the management of the Company being transferred to other hands.

A dispute also took place between the Company and the Muni-

cipality. The former made an application to commute the £25,000 of municipal debentures which it held, into land. But the deeds were not executed, although the lots were assigned; and commutation was deferred till maturity of the debentures and payment of a quit-rent, equivalent to the interest, was agreed on. In 1868, when affairs definitely assumed an unfavourable aspect, the Company endeavoured to repudiate the transaction, and brought an action against the Municipality for payment of £2700 interest on the debentures. The latter resisted the claim, on the ground that the Company had agreed to commute the debentures for certain lands in the town of Canning. The Company gained the suit in the first instance, but on appeal, the order was reversed, and the commutation was declared to be valid. The Company, however, have not entered into possession of their lands, and an appeal is said to have been preferred to the Privy Council in England. In 1870, the Secretary of the Company addressed Government, urging upon it the duty of redeeming the debentures which the Municipality had failed to meet. The Government of India, in reply, declined to admit any obligation, and refused to provide the Municipal Commissioners with funds to pay their debts. The first of the Government debenture bonds for £10,000 having arrived at maturity in April 1871, steps were taken to obtain a decree, and the whole of the municipal property, moveable and immoveable, was placed under attachment. Government having thus obtained priority, notice was sent to the private debenture-holders, inviting them to co-operate in obtaining a fair division of the assets.

As regards the operations of the Company, it may be stated that, according to the prospectus, they possessed 134,590 acres of land, yielding an estimated annual rental of £13,000. These lands consisted of the town belonging to the Municipality, and of Sundarban lots leased from Government or purchased from individuals, the greater portion being redeemable in freehold. In 1866, the Company added to their business the lease of the forest rights in all the unappropriated lands of the Sundarbans, as well as the rights of fishery in all the rivers, which were put up to auction by Government for a term of five years, but liable at any time to resumption on six months' notice. The fishing rights were withdrawn in October 1868, in consequence of the claims of the Company being contested by fishermen and others holding prescriptive rights; and the question was finally decided, under legal advice, that the Government had not the right to farm out the fisheries in tidal waters to private persons. The lease of the forest rights was resumed after due notice, on the grounds that the monopoly was contrary to the interests of the general public, and that oppression was exercised by the Company's agents in the collection of the fees An appeal was presented to the Government of India and the Secretary

of State against the withdrawal of these leases, but the action of the Bengal Government was upheld.

The following are the principal works undertaken and executed, either partially or completely, by the Company, namely — (1) A wet dock, 3500 by 400 feet, for the accommodation of country boats, in accordance with the conditions in the deed of concession; (2) the protection from erosion of the Matlá foreshore; (3) seven landing wharves and iron jetties, each capable of accommodating two ships at a time; (4) goods sheds and tramways in connection with the jetties; (5) a 'gridiron' and graving dock for repairing vessels; (6) lastly, the rice mills, constructed on an extensive scale, capable of husking and turning out about 90,000 tons of rice a year, from which very profitable results were expected. Many of these works have fallen into disrepair, and are to a large extent unserviceable. The number of ships that visited the port since its opening in 1861-62 down to the close of 1870-71, was as follows:—1861-62, none; 1862-63, 1; 1863-64, 11; 1864-65, 14; 1865-66, 26; 1866-67, 20; 1867-68, 9; 1868-69, 1; 1869-70, 2; 1870-71, none. In March 1869, the Company applied to Government, urging for a time the suspension of the port-dues and charges. The request was complied with, and a Government notification was issued declaring Canning to be a free port, and providing that six months' notice should be given before the charges were reimposed. This notification, however, had no effect. The two vessels which arrived in 1869-70 were chartered by the Company for the purpose of bringing trade to the rice-mills, as well as to give effect to the notification. Since February 1870, no ocean-going ships have arrived at the port; and the arrivals of 1867-68 may be looked upon as the last response of the mercantile community to the endeavours made by the Company, and aided by the Government, to raise Canning to the position of a port auxiliary to Calcutta.

The last effort of the Company to develope the rice-mills having proved financially unsuccessful, and the only remaining source of revenue being derivable from their landed estates, it was resolved, at a meeting of shareholders in May 1870, to appoint a committee for the purpose of preparing a scheme of voluntary liquidation and reconstruction of the Company. The head office was removed to Bombay, and the local expenditure reduced; the working of the mills was stopped until such time as they could be leased out or worked profitably, and the operations of the Company confined to the improvement of the revenue from their landed estate. At a subsequent meeting of shareholders, held in August 1870, it was resolved to make further calls to pay off existing debts, and to transfer and sell, under certain conditions, the whole of the property and rights of the 'Port Canning Land Investment, Reclamation, and Dock Company,' to the new 'Port

Canning Land Company, Limited.' These resolutions have since been carried out, the interest in the new Company being principally vested in the Bombay shareholders, who exercise the chief direction of affairs.

The Port Establishment has been a heavy and an unprofitable charge to Government. In 1869-70, the cost of the port amounted to £15,709, while the receipts were only £1134, 14s. This was exclusive of the charges for special survey and arsenal stores. Considering the position and prospects of the Company, and the hopelessness of the establishment of any trade which would justify the retention of a port on the Matlá, the Lieutenant-Governor, in June 1871, recommended that the earliest opportunity should be taken of officially closing the port, and withdrawing the establishments, with the exception of the light vessel outside, which would be of use to ships from the eastward, and might occasionally guide a vessel to an anchorage in rough weather. These recommendations were adopted, and shortly afterwards the Government moorings, etc. were taken up, and the port officially declared closed. In 1870, the town contained 386 houses or huts, with a total population of 714 souls. At present, it is nearly deserted. The Commissioner of the Sundarbans, in a report dated the 10th April 1873, states that, 'with the exception of the Agent and others employed by the new Port Canning Land Company, and a *dák munshí* or deputy postmaster, no one lives at Canning.'

The line of railway connecting Port Canning with Calcutta, 28 miles distant, proved a failure from the first. Upon the collapse of the Company, it was taken over by Government as a State line. It is still worked, but on a very economical scale; its traffic consists almost solely of firewood, bamboos, and fish from the Sundarbans.

Porto Novo (*Feringhipet* or *Parangípetai; Mahmúd Bandar*).—Seaport town and railway station in South Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 29′ 25″ N., and long. 79° 48′ 13″ E., 145 miles south of Madras, and 32 miles south of Pondicherri, at the mouth of the river Vellár. Pop. (1871), 7182, dwelling in 1438 houses. The port is frequented exclusively by native craft, of which, in 1875, 248 (tonnage 16,700) called. Value of exports in the same year, £56,000; of imports, £9500. When the English commenced trading here in 1682, they found the Danes and Portuguese already established. In 1749, the Madras army, marching against Tanjore, halted at Porto Novo for a while; and in 1781, Sir Eyre Coote marched out of Porto Novo with 8000 men to meet the whole army of Mysore, some 60,000 strong, under Haidar; and in the battle which ensued, won the most signal victory of the war, and practically saved the Presidency.

Porto Novo is interesting also as the scene of English joint-stock enterprise. From 1824, and for many years afterwards, efforts had

been made to establish ironworks at Porto Novo. A company called the Porto Novo Iron Company established a large factory here, but, after many years of patient endeavour, the enterprise had to be abandoned. To facilitate the carriage of the iron-ores, which were brought by water from Salem, the old Khán Sáhib's canal was made navigable in 1854 by the construction of 3 locks,—one where the canal debouches into the Vellár, nearly opposite the town of Porto Novo; the second where it leaves the Víranam tank; and the third a little lower down. The Iron Company cut a short canal of their own from the Vellár into the backwater adjoining the embouchure of the Coleroon, down which they used to float their ore in basket boats to Porto Novo before the Khán Sáhib's canal was rendered navigable. The Company's canal, which is only about 2 miles long, is now much silted up. The excavation of the East Coast Canal at Porto Novo was commenced in 1853, and considerable progress was made up to 1857, when the Mutiny seems to have put a stop to it, as it did to many other public works. A small expenditure would probably render the canal navigable for boats from the Vellár to the Paravanar, and so to Cuddalore, but the construction of the railway has rendered such expenditure hardly necessary. The only special manufacture of Porto Novo is a species of mat, made from the leaves of the wild pine-apple, in imitation of similar mats of an exceedingly soft and elegant make imported from Achín.

Portuguese Possessions.—The Portuguese Possessions in India consist of GOA, DAMAN, and DIU. Total area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract of 1868, 1086 square miles; pop. 407,712.—For a full account, *see* GOA.

Potanúr.—Railway Station in Coimbatore District, Madras; 302 miles from Madras.

Potegáon.—Chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces; 16 miles east-north-east of Chámursí; comprising 11 villages, in a hilly country, which yields much *sáj*, *bíjesál*, and ebony. Potegáon village is situated in lat. 20° N., long. 80° 11′ E.

Potikall.—Chiefship in Bastar District, Central Provinces; comprising 30 villages. Area, 350 square miles; pop. almost wholly Koi, but the chief is a Telinga. Potikall, the chief village, containing about 100 houses, is situated on the river Tál, in lat. 18° 33′ N., and long. 80° 56′ E.

Po-tsa-daw.—Revenue circle on the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), in the Tarúp-hmaw township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2732; gross revenue, £709.

Pouk-khoung.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2106; gross revenue, £358.

Pouk-taw.—Revenue circle in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. With the exception of the south-western

portion, a level and fertile tract. Toddy-palms grow in abundance. Pop. (1877), 4020; gross revenue, £808.

Pouk-taw.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 2298; gross revenue, £312.

Pouk-taw.—Revenue circle in the Ta-pwon township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 4625; gross revenue, £937.

Pouk-taw.—Revenue circle in the Meng-hla township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Well cultivated in the central and south-eastern portions. Pop. (1877), 7657; gross revenue, £2033.

Poung.—Revenue circle in the Martaban township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated west of the Martaban Hills. Very fertile in its western portion; traversed by several creeks communicating with the sea. In the rains, water-carriage is available throughout the circle. Small salt manufacture. Pop. (1877), 5459; land revenue, £1409, and capitation tax, £579.

Poung-day.—Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. West of the Myit-ma-kha stream, which traverses the township from north to south, leaving a narrow strip between it and the Eng-daing (the name given to the long stretch of *eng* forest land between the Prome Hills and the Myit-ma-kha), the country is undulating and forest-clad. The eastern portion consists of a plain highly cultivated, and under rice. The great high road from Rangoon to the northern frontier traverses this tract. The chief river is the Myit-ma-kha, the head-waters of the Hlaing, which carries off nearly the whole drainage of the country. Its main tributaries are the Shwe-lay or Wai-gyí, and the Kantha or Toung-gnyo. Poung-day now includes Eng-ma, once an independent jurisdiction. The Eng-ma Lake is an extensive marsh, about 10 miles long and 4 broad in the rains, with a depth of 12 feet. The Myit-ma-kha enters it in the north as the Zay. The township comprises 35 revenue circles, with a population in 1877 of 33,750 persons; gross revenue, £8359.

Poung-day.—Chief town of the above township, Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 28′ 20″ N., and long. 95° 33′ 40″ E., on the main road from Rangoon northwards, 33 miles south of Prome. Contains a court-house, market, police station, lock-up, charitable dispensary, school, etc. Station on the Irawadi Valley Railway. Pop. (1878), 5390.

Poung-loung.—Range of hills in Tenasserim, British Burma, forming the eastern boundary of Shwe-gyeng District. The mountains are steep and densely wooded, and many rivers take their rise here. There are three principal passes—the northern runs up the valley of the Baw-ga-ta, and across the Thayet-peng-keng-dat Hill to Kaw-lú-do, the

northern police post in the Salwín Hill Tracts; the central passes up the valleys of the Mút-ta-ma and Mai-dái, and debouches at Pa-pwon; and the southern route is from the Mut-ta-ma river to Hpa-wa-ta on the Bhí-leng.

Prakásha.—Municipal town in Khandesh District, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 74° 28′ E., 25 miles south-west of Dhuliá, and 7 miles south-west of Sháháda; at the junction of the Tápti river with two of its tributaries. Pop. (1872), 3649; municipal revenue, £125. East of the town stands an old temple of Mahádeo, in whose honour a great Hindu fair is held every twelve years, when Sinhast, or the planet *Guru* or Jupiter, enters the constellation of the Lion.

Pránhíta.—The name of the united streams of the Wardha and Wainganga down to their junction with the Godávari at Síroncha, in Upper Godávari District, Central Provinces; length about 70 miles. Forty miles above Síroncha, occurs the 'third barrier,' a formidable obstruction to navigation. The Pránhíta has a broad bed, which in the rainy season is filled with a rushing flood, but in the dry weather consists mainly of a broad sandy expanse, with a thin and shallow stream.

Pratápgarh.—District, *tahsíl*, *parganá*, and town, in Oudh.—*See* PARTABGARH.

Pratápgarh.—State in Rájputána.—*See* PARTABGARH.

Pratápgarh.—Chiefship in the west of Chhindwára District, Central Provinces, near Motúr; comprising 181 villages, which pay no revenue to Government. With Sonpur, it formed part of the Harái chiefship; but at the beginning of this century it was separated, and came under the management of the Harái chief's brother.

Pratápnagar. — Chief village of Jámirá Fiscal Division in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 23′ 5″ N., and long. 89° 15′ 15″ E., on the bank of the Kholpetuá river. Contains a large rice mart; and in 1857 was the seat of the principal revenue court of the local landholder.

Prattipádu.—Agricultural village in Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 16° 12′ N., long. 80° 24′ E.; pop. (1871), 7315, inhabiting 2051 houses.

Premtoli.—Village in Rájsháhi District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 24′ 30″ N., long. 88° 25′ 15″ E. An annual religious trading fair is held here on the 20th day of the moon of Aswín, to celebrate the anniversary of the visit of the reformer-saint Chaitanya to Gaur, the former capital of Lower Bengal.

Proddutúr (*Poddatúru*).—Town in Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras. Lat. 14° 45′ N., long. 78° 35′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 6709, inhabiting 1334 houses. It is the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name; and some trade is carried on, the chief staple being indigo. Dispensary.

Prome (Burmese *Pyé*).—A District in Pegu Division, British Burma,

stretching across the valley of the Irawadi between Thayet on the north and the Districts of Henzada and Tharawadi on the south. Area, 2887 square miles; pop. (Census of 1872), 274,872 souls. Bounded on the west by the Arakan Mountains, and on the east by the Pegu Yoma range. The District of Prome originally extended northwards as far as the frontier of Independent Burma; but in April 1870, Thayet was erected into a separate jurisdiction. The headquarters of the District are at PROME TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The Irawadi flows through the District from north to south, dividing it into two portions, which differ considerably in area, appearance, and fertility. On the west, the country is broken by thickly wooded spurs from the Arakan Mountains into small valleys drained by short and unimportant tributaries of the Irawadi, and but little under cultivation. North and north-east of Prome, the forest-covered spurs of the Pegu Yomas also form numerous valleys and ravines, stretching as far as the Irawadi, and watered by torrents which, as they proceed south-west towards more level country, eventually unite into one large stream called the NA-WENG. The south and south-western portions of the District consist of a large and well-cultivated plain, intersected by low ranges with a general north and south direction, the chief of which is called the Prome Hills. Towards the east and south-east, this fertile tract is drained by streams, which, walled back from the Irawadi by the Prome Hills, send their waters to the Myit-ma-kha, the head of the Hlaing river, and thus seawards in a line parallel to that of the great river. There are several roads across the Pegu Yomas, but none are practicable for wheeled traffic. Footpaths lead from the sources of the North and South Na-weng to the Myouk-mwe and Hpa-loung streams respectively; and farther south, there is a track from near the source of the Shwe-lay to the Kareng hamlets on the Za-ma-yí, the head-waters of the Pegu river. A road over the Arakan Mountains connects Pa-doung *viâ* Gnyoung-khye-douk with Toung-gúp in Sandoway. It was by this route that the main body of the Burmese army advanced in 1784 from Prome to the final conquest of the kingdom of Arakan. In 1826, however, it was reported as altogether impassable by troops or laden cattle. The chief rivers of Prome District are—the Tha-ní, which rises in the extreme north-west angle and flows east-south-east for 25 miles, joining the Irawadi at Pai-gyí; the Bhú-rú, rising in the Arakan Mountains, and after a south-easterly course of 35 miles, falling into the Tha-ní near Gnyoung-beng-tha; the Kyouk-bhú, another tributary of the Tha-ní; the Tha-le-dan streams, which rise in the Arakan range and unite near Ma-toung, 17 miles from the village of Tha-le-dan, where their combined waters reach the Irawadi. The mountainous country east of the Irawadi and north-east of Prome town is drained by the NA-WENG system of rivers, of which the most important

are the South Na-weng, falling into the Irawadi at Prome, and its affluents the North Na-weng, the Khyoung-tsouk, and the Teng-gyí, all of which take their rise in the Pegu Yomas, and eventually join the Irawadi. Though all these rivers are to a certain extent navigable by boats, yet they are at present mainly important as the routes by which the valuable timber of the hill country is floated down the Irawadi to be lashed into rafts at the mouth of the Na-weng. The plains in the south of Prome are watered by a series of streams forming the Myit-ma-kha system. The chief of these are—the Zay, which flows into the Eng-ma swamp; the Shwe-lay; the Kyat, rising in Henzada District, where it is known as the Toung-gnyo; and the Myit-ma-kha or upper portion of the HLAING RIVER. The District contains two lakes—the Eng-ma and the Shwe-doung Myo-ma. The Dí-dút swamp, on the east bank of the Irawadi, is a depression in the plains supplied by the annual overflow of the Irawadi; in the rains it is 7 feet deep, but dries up in the hot season. The area of the teak localities on the west side of the Irawadi is estimated at 40 square miles, with about 200 first-class trees. Between the Pegu Yomas and the Irawadi are vast forests of *eng*, *thit-ya* (Shorea robusta), *eng-gyeng* (Pentacme siamensis), and *thit-tsí*. Teak occurs all over the hills, and the average annual yield since the three-year permit system was introduced in 1862 has been about 10,000 logs. The forests of the Province are now worked by the Forest Department. The Shwe-lay forests, with an estimated area of 95 square miles, contain some of the most valuable teak in Pegu. Many other varieties of timber, such as *pyeng-gado*, *pa-douk*, *reng-daik*, *sha*, *kúk-ko*, abound. It has been calculated that as many as 2000 *pa-douk* trees, 1100 *kúk-ko*, and 130,000 *sha* were felled annually until these trees were reserved.

History.—Fact and fable are so interwoven in the early history of the once flourishing kingdom of Prome, that it is impossible to disentangle the true from the false. It is most probable that the area of distribution of Gautama Buddha's relics after his death in 543 B.C. marks the limits of his forty-five years' wanderings, yet all Burmese historians assert that he visited and preached in Burma. The Prome histories begin by relating the foundation of Prome in accordance with a prophecy of Gautama, who, whilst looking towards the south-east from the site of Prome over a 'great ocean,' observed a piece of cow-dung floating with the current, and at the same time a bamboo rat appeared and adored him. Gautama spoke thus: 'This rat at my feet shall be born again as Dwot-ta-boung; and in the hundred and first year of my religion he shall found, at the spot where that piece of cow-dung now is, the large town of Tha-re-khettra (Srí-kshettra); and in his reign shall my religion spread far and wide.' The date of the foundation of this city can be fixed; for some of the histories of Prome—all of which agree in giving 101 of the Buddhist religious era as the date—state that

it was in the first year after the first great Buddhist council, and this is known from independent testimony to have taken place about 443 B.C. Tha-re-khettra was situated 5 or 6 miles east of the present town of Prome, and was, according to the annalists, surrounded by a wall 40 miles long, with 32 large and 23 small gates. About the beginning of the 2nd century of the Christian era, the town was abandoned, and fell into ruins. Embankments and pagodas, standing in rice-fields and swamps, alone mark the site of what was once the capital of a powerful kingdom. The next date which can be fixed with any accuracy, is the accession of a king in whose reign was held the second Buddhist council. This was called together by Asoka in the twenty-second year of his rule, counting from his accession, and in the eighteenth from his coronation, and assembled under the guidance of the Arahat Mogaliputra in 241 B.C.

It is not until about 90 B.C.[1] that any statements by historians of other countries are available as checks on the Prome chroniclers.

About that year, the sacred Buddhist scriptures were reduced into writing in Ceylon; and this fact, which is noticed in the Burmese palm-leaf chronicles, is stated there to have taken place in the 17th year of a king named Te-pa. This sovereign, who was originally a poor student for the priesthood and was adopted by his childless predecessor, must thus have ascended the throne *circa* 107 B.C. He is stated to have been the 11th monarch since the foundation of the capital; but this would give over forty years as the average length of the reign of his predecessors, except that of Dwot-ta-boung, who, it is asserted, reigned for seventy years.

The Te-pa dynasty occupied the throne of Tha-re-khettra for 202 years, or until 95 A.D., when the monarchy was broken up by civil war and an invasion by the Kan-ran tribe from Arakan. The last king was Thú-pa-gnya. His nephew Tha-mún-da-riet fled first to Toung-gnyo south-east of Prome; he then crossed the Irawadi to Pa-doung, but being still harassed by the Kan-ran, he went northwards to Meng-dún. He finally recrossed the river, and founded the city of Lower Pagan, in 108 A.D. In establishing his new kingdom he was greatly assisted by a scion of the old Ta-goung race of kings, named Pyú-meng-tí or Pyú-tsaw-tí, who married his daughter and afterwards succeeded him.

From about the middle of the 14th to the beginning of the 16th century, the greater part of the Pagan kingdom was parcelled out amongst a crowd of adventurers from the Shan States. In about 1365, a descendant of the old Ta-goung dynasty succeeded in re-establishing the Burmese monarchy, but it lasted only a few years.

In 1404, Raza-dhie-rit, king of the Talaing kingdom on the south, the

[1] Dr. Mason says 93 or 94 B.C. Sir J. Emerson Tennant in his work on Ceylon, third edition, page 376, says in 89 B.C.

capital of which was at Pegu, invaded Burma; and passing by Prome and Mye-dai, ravaged the country near the chief city, Ava. Towards the close of the 15th century, the power of the rulers at Ava may be said to have ceased. Their dominions were divided amongst a number of independent Burmanized Shans Tsaw-bwa, one of whom was settled at Toung-ngú. In 1530, Meng-tara-shwe-htí, or Ta-beng-shwe-htí, ascended the throne of Toung-ngú; and four years later, commenced his aggressive career by marching on Pegu. In two campaigns, the power of the Talaing king was broken, and he fled to Prome, and Meng-tara-shwe-htí fixed his capital at Pegu. An alliance was formed against him by the kings of Ava, Prome, and Arakan; but their forces were successively routed by Ta-beng-shwe-htí and his renowned general, Bhúreng-noung, in the neighbourhood of Prome, which surrendered in 1542. In the later years of his life, Ta-beng-shwe-htí is said to have associated with a dissipated Portuguese adventurer; and he was murdered in May 1550, after a glorious reign of twenty years, in which time he had raised himself from being merely Tsaw-bwa of Toung-ngú to the position of lord paramount over Pegu, Tenasserim, and Upper Burma, as far as Pagan, with the kings of Burma and Siam paying him tribute. He was succeeded by the general to whom much of his military success was owing, viz. Bhúreng-noung, who assumed the title of Tsheng-hpyú-mya-sheng (literally, 'Lord of many Elephants'), from the fact of his having taken six white elephants from the King of Siam. It was not without fighting, however, that Bhúreng-noung obtained possession of the throne. No sooner was Ta-beng-shwe-htí dead, than the rulers of Prome and Toung-ngú—though they were Bhúreng-noung's own brothers—declared themselves independent, and the old royal Talaing family again set up its claim to the throne of Pegu. Bhúreng-noung speedily reduced his refractory brothers to subjection. Commencing with Toung-ngú, he crossed thence to Mye-dai and Ma-lwon, and there obtaining a fleet of boats, sailed down by water to Prome. Having subdued Prome, he went northwards, and had nearly reached Ava when he was recalled by the intelligence that the Peguans were about to attack Toung-ngú. This attempt he easily frustrated. He now called a family gathering, and distributed the Provinces of the empire among his brothers, making them tributary princes of Martaban, Prome, and Toung-ngú. The great king, Tsheng-hpyú-mya-sheng, died in 1581, and his vast empire shortly afterwards fell to pieces. The seat of government was removed after his death to Toung-ngú, and one of his younger sons, Gnyoung-ran-meng-tara, established his capital at Ava.

The second dynasty of Ava kings which was thus established lasted for about a century and a half, and was ultimately overthrown by an invasion from Pegu. The Talaings were driven into revolt by the misgovernment of the officers sent down from Ava. They established their

independence; and the second king, Byí-gnya-da-la, invaded the Burman territory, captured Ava, and carried off the king a prisoner to Pegu. The whole of Upper Burma was reduced, with the exception of one village, Mút-tsho-bho, some miles to the north of Ava. The head-man of this village, Moung-oung-ze-ya, refused to surrender to the Talaing conquerors, and was repeatedly attacked, but always without success. The fame of his patriotism and ability soon spread, and a crowd of Burmese, who chafed under the domination of the Talaings, gathered round him and acknowledged him as their leader. With their assistance he drove the Talaings out of Ava and the whole of Upper Burma. He then assumed the title of Aloung-meng-tara-gyí, or Aloung-bhúra (corrupted by Europeans into Alompra), and became the founder of the third and present dynasty of Ava kings (1753 A.D.). In 1758, he conquered Pegu, and carried away captive Bya-hmaing-tí-raza, the last of the Talaing kings.

From this period till the annexation of Pegu by Lord Dalhousie in 1853, at the close of the second Burmese war, Prome remained a Province of the Burmese kingdom.

Population.—Until the year 1870, Prome included Thayet District, and no separate details of population are available. By the Census of 1872, the number of inhabitants was returned at 274,872 (of whom 138,547 were males and 136,325 females); but this included travellers and temporary residents. The population was ethnologically divided into 256,864 Burmese, 10,796 Khyengs, 2382 Karengs, 1297 Shans, 1814 Kathays, 285 Hindus, 1082 Muhammadans, 259 Chinese, and 53 'others.' Classified according to age, there were, above 12 years—males, 88,478; females, 86,417: under 12 years—males, 50,069; females, 49,908. The population in 1877 was returned at 282,178. The Khyengs, a portion of the mountain race which extends far north into Upper Burma and westward into Arakan, are found generally to the west of the Irawadi. When living near the Burmese, the men adopt the Burmese costume much more readily than the women, whose tattooed faces unmistakably betray their origin. Their professed religion is Buddhism. The Shans are settlers from the north-east of Ava, a patient hard-working people. The Kathays, Hindus in religion, are Manipuris, who were brought to Prome as Burmese captives. They occupy an outlying quarter of the town between the river and the great Shwe-tshan-daw Pagoda, and are principally engaged in silk-weaving. They are found nowhere else in British Burma except in Rangoon, where there are only 31 of them. The Hindus, Muhammadans, and Chinese are immigrants engaged in cattle-dealing and trade. The total agricultural population was returned at 73,505, of whom 38,340 were males above 20 years of age. It is impossible to give the number of persons dependent upon agriculture, as many combine the occupations

of agriculturists and fishermen as the season serves, and still more have, under the charge of members of their families, small retail shops for the sale of almost every kind of article. That the number of agriculturists is not more than 26·74 per cent. is due to the large trading towns; deducting these, the percentage of agriculturists rises to 68·71.

The chief towns of Prome District are—PROME, the headquarters, situated on the left bank of the Irawadi, and the terminus of the Irawadi Valley (State) Railway, pop. (1877) 26,826; SHWE-DOUNG, a large trading centre, pop. (1877) 13,588; PA-DOUNG, pop. (1877) 2897; POUNG-DAY, pop. (1878) 5390; Ta-beng-ta-ga; and Peng-ga-daw. The principal pagodas in the District are the Shwe-tshan-daw in Prome, and the Shwe-nat-daw, 14 miles south of that town. The former, situated on a hill about half a mile from the left bank of the Irawadi, rises from a nearly square platform to a height of 80 feet, and covers an area of 11,025 square feet. It is surrounded by 83 small gilded temples, each containing an image of Gautama. Many marvels are told concerning the erection of this pagoda; and it is said to have been raised on an emerald box, resting on seven ingots of gold, in which were deposited three hairs of Gautama himself. Successive kings and governors have added to and embellished the building. The annual festival, attended by thousands of devout Buddhists, is held in Ta-boung, corresponding to our month of March. The Shwe-nat-daw Pagoda also stands on high ground, and immediately below it is a plain where, early in the year, as many as 20,000 pilgrims sometimes assemble for the annual eight days' festival or religious fair held here. The palm-leaf histories relate that the Shwe-nat-daw was originally built by Tsan-da-de-wí, wife of Dwot-ta-boung, who reigned from 443 to 372 B.C. This king granted to the pagoda, and set apart from secular uses for ever, the whole space around it on which its shadow fell between sunrise and sunset, and directed that a grand festival should be held there annually on the full moon of Ta-boung.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple product of the District, being cultivated mainly in the Poung-day and Shwe-doung townships. The grain is soft and unsuited for a long sea voyage, and is usually consumed in the District or exported northwards to Mandalay. Owing to the opening of the railway, a considerable quantity will probably now be brought south to supply the China and Straits market. Tobacco is grown on the banks of the Irawadi after the floods have fallen. Cotton is sown on the hillsides, and is partially cleaned in Prome, and sent down to Rangoon for export, sometimes mixed with a shorter-stapled kind, imported from Upper Burma. Near Prome, and on the hills opposite, are numerous fruit-gardens, the custard apple predominating, no less than 593 acres being planted with this tree; mixed fruit-trees cover an area of 10,231 acres. The *toungya* or *júm* system of cultivation is more

extensively adopted than in any other District of British Burma, the estimated area so worked being, in 1876-77, about 9291 acres. A portion of the forest is cleared, and the timber felled early in the dry season; just before the rains, it is fired, and the logs and brushwood reduced to ashes. On the first fall of rain, the crop is sown; and after it has been reaped, the *toungya* again becomes waste. One kind of injury generally caused is the over-luxuriant growth of dense jungle that immediately springs up; but in this District the fertilizing effect of the ashes has the opposite result, for an unusual number of young teak and other valuable trees are found on deserted *toungya* or hill gardens. In 1877-78, the area under rice was 151,920 acres; tobacco, 2154 acres; vegetables, 3747 acres; fruit-trees, 12,155 acres; the area under cotton in 1876-77 was 1529 acres. The average holding of each cultivator is 7 acres. In Pa-doung, the land is a good deal encumbered, owing probably to its having been more thickly peopled in former years, and to many of the inhabitants having crossed the river to Shwe-doung and mortgaged their land to obtain funds for trading; but, as a rule, proprietors everywhere live close to their landed property.

Manufactures, etc.—One of the most important manufactures of the District is silk. Neither the worm nor the mulberry are indigenous to the Province, but were most probably imported from China down the Irawadi valley. That this lucrative manufacture is not more general may be attributed to the fact that it involves taking the life of the chrysalis—an act of impiety regarded with horror by every rigid Buddhist. The silk growers are nearly all Yabaing, a race of the same stock as the Burmese, by whom, however, they are looked down upon; and those who breed silk-worms live in separate villages, and hold little intercourse with their neighbours. The price of the raw silk, when brought to the markets on the river's bank, varies from 4 rupees 8 annas (or 9s.) to 7 rupees (or 14s.) per lb., the average being 5 rupees 12 annas (or 11s. 6d.). The method pursued in this industry is rude and careless in the extreme, all the processes being carried on in the ordinary bamboo dwelling-houses of the country, which are smoke-begrimed and dirty. The plant of a Burmese silk filature is inexpensive, consisting simply of—(1) a set of flat trays with slightly raised edges, made of bamboo strips from 2 to 4 feet in diameter; (2) a few neatly made circles of palm-leaves, 3 or 4 inches in diameter; (3) some strips of coarse cotton cloth; (4) a common cooking pot; (5) a bamboo reel; and (6) a two-pronged fork. Silk-weaving is carried on principally in the towns of Prome and Shwe-doung; but a loom forms part of the household furniture of every Burmese. The best cloths are made from imported Chinese silk, which costs £3, 12s. per *viss* or 3·65 lbs., whilst the same quantity of the home-grown article costs only £2, 4s. The other manufactures of Prome District are—ornamental

boxes used for keeping Burmese palm-leaf books, and made in Prome town only; coarse sugar, varying in price from £2 to £2, 5s. per 365 lbs.; in 1877, there were 500 sugar boilers. Cutch, made in the wooded townships of Shwe-lay, Maha-tha-man, and Pa-doung, sold on the spot in 1876-77 for 4s. 7½d. per *maund* of 80 lbs., but fetched 19s. 7½d. in the Rangoon market. In 1877-78, this industry gave employment to 2040 persons; the number of caldrons was 2282. Telegraph lines run from Rangoon *viâ* Poung-day and Shwe-doung to Thayet, and from Prome to Toung-gúp in Arakan. All messages from Upper Burma and the whole country east of the Irawadi, including Rangoon, to Calcutta and Europe, pass by this latter line. The chief road in the District is that from Rangoon *viâ* Poung-day, and across the Wek-pút and Na-weng streams, to Prome.

Soon after the annexation of Pegu, a military road was constructed over the Arakan range, but it is now in disrepair. The Irawadi Valley (State) Railway traverses this District, and has stations at Poung-day, Tsheng-myí-tshwai, Hmaw-za, and Prome. Numerous dry-weather cart-tracks connect village with village. The mails are carried from Rangoon by the railway daily, and thence to Thayet-myo by the steamers of the Irawadi Flotilla Company, which arrive from Rangoon once a week.

Administration.—Under native rule the larger portion of the imperial income was derived from a poll-tax levied by the chief local authority, but the assessments on each house were left to the village *thúgyí*. Certain royal lands near Prome were held by a class of tenants called Lamaing, on payment of a rent of half the produce—a kind of tenure which existed nowhere else in the Province. The gross revenue in 1869-70, before Thayet was separated from Prome, was £80,328, of which £28,457 was derived from land and £34,069 from capitation dues. The gross revenue in 1877-78 amounted to £68,574; the expenditure was £15,913. The local revenues raised in 1877-78 (excluding that of Prome town) amounted to £6323. Under the Burmese, the District was divided into small independent tracts, administered by *won* and *myo-thúgyí*, under whom were *taik-thúgyí*, *rwa* or village *thúgyí*, and *kyedangí*. The officers in charge all communicated directly with the court at Ava. Under British rule, Prome has been split up into 6 townships, each being under a *myo-úk* or extra-Assistant Commissioner, entrusted with limited fiscal, judicial, and police powers. The number of *thúgyí* has been reduced to 140. The townships are those of Prome, Ma-ha-tha-man, Shwe-lay, Poung-day, Shwe-doung, and Pa-doung. Prome town is a municipality. Over the whole District is a Deputy Commissioner, with 8 Assistants. In 1877, the regular police force consisted of 379 officers and men paid from Provincial revenues, and 84 from local funds, besides a force of 110 men

employed at the various fairs in the District. The total cost was £9681. There are courts in the chief towns of the District, viz. Prome, Pa-doung, Shwe-doung, and Poung-day. For many years, education in Prome District was entirely in the hands of Buddhist monks and a few native laymen, whose teaching was confined to reading and writing. Soon after the annexation of Pegu, the American Baptist missionaries opened village schools and a normal school at Prome; in 1866, the State established a middle-class school in the same town, and since then several others have been opened. In 1876-77, the average daily attendance at the State school was 108. In pursuance of the scheme for utilizing the monasteries as far as possible in giving a sounder education than had hitherto been imparted, an officer was appointed in 1873-74 to inspect all schools the head monks of which would allow their pupils to be examined. In 1877-78, 85 monastic and 29 lay schools were inspected. In 1866-67, the Prome jail was reduced to the grade of a lock-up, and the construction of a new prison at Thayet-myo was begun; in 1878, the site of the lock-up was bought by the Railway Department, and the prisoners removed to Thayet-myo. There is no prison of any kind now in Prome.

Climate.—The climate of Prome is much drier than in other Districts of British Burma. The total rainfall in 1877 was returned at 53·46 inches.

Prome.—Chief town and headquarters of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 43′ N., and long. 95° 15′ E., on the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). The town extends northwards from the foot of the Prome Hills to the bank of the Na-weng, with a suburb on the farther side of that stream; and eastwards for some distance up the Na-weng valley. It is divided into several municipal quarters, viz. Na-weng on the north, Rwa-bhai on the east, Tsheng-tsú on the south, and Shwe-kú and Tshan-daw in the centre. In Burmese times, the east side was closed in by a ditch, which is now being filled up, for during the dry weather it proved a fertile source of fever. Skirting the high river bank are the police office, the Government school, the court-houses, the church, and the telegraph station. The Strand road traverses the town from north to south, and from it numerous well-laid roads run eastwards. North of Tsheng-tsú is the great Shwe-tshan-daw Pagoda, conspicuous among the dark foliage of the trees covering the slopes of the hill on which it stands. In the Na-weng quarter, a large trade in *nga-pí* or fish-paste is carried on. Here are the markets, consisting of four distinct buildings. Farther south, overlooking the river and separated from it by the Strand, are the charitable dispensary and Lock hospital—wooden buildings, well raised above the ground. The railway station, at present the terminus of the Irawadi Valley (State) Railway, lies a little south of

the court-houses. The town was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1862.

Prome is mentioned in ancient histories as the capital of a great kingdom before the Christian era, but the town spoken of was Tha-re-khettra, some miles inland, of which traces still exist. After the destruction of Tha-re-khettra, about the end of the 1st century, Prome for many years belonged sometimes to Ava, sometimes to Pegu, and sometimes was independent. But after the conquest of Pegu by Aloung-bhúra, it remained a Burmese town until Pegu was annexed by the British in 1853. In 1825, during the first Anglo-Burmese war, when Sir Archibald Campbell was advancing on the Burmese capital, endeavours were made to induce him to halt before reaching Prome, but he declined entering into negotiations. Upon the first appearance of our troops, the place was partly burned by the Burmese, and though strongly fortified, it was deserted. After the signing of the Treaty of Yendabú in 1826, the British evacuated Prome District with the rest of the Irawadi valley. During the second Burmese war in 1852, the town was attacked by the flotilla under Commander Tarleton, and taken; but almost immediately abandoned, as there were no troops to hold it. Three months later, in October of that year, the advance from Rangoon took place. The flotilla arrived off Prome on the morning of the 9th, and each ship was cannonaded as it passed up, but with little effect. After a short contest, the place was again occupied. On the 15th of October, Bandúla, the Burmese commander, surrendered, and the enemy were driven out of the District. Gradually the country settled down, and a regular civil government was established. The British garrison in Prome first encamped on the hills south of the town, but were subsequently transferred to Nwa-ma-ran, near Shwe-doung. In 1854, they were removed to Thayet-myo, which was nearer the frontier, and supposed to be healthier.

In 1872, the population of Prome town was returned at 31,157, inclusive of all wayfarers and casual inhabitants. In 1877, the population was given at 26,826. The total revenue in 1877-78 was £9638, and the expenditure, £7984. In 1874, the town was erected into a municipality, and since then great improvements have been made—tanks have been dug, swamps filled in, the town lighted with kerosene oil lamps, and public gardens have been laid out. The total amount spent on public works up to the close of 1877-78 was £9282, inclusive of a loan of £726.

Pubna.—District, Subdivision, and town in Bengal.—*See* PABNA.

Púdúkottái (*Poodoocottah*, 'The Tonda-man's Country').—Native State in Madras, lying between 10° 15′ and 10° 29′ N. lat., and between 78° 45′ and 79′ E. long., entirely surrounded by the British Districts of Tanjore (Tanjávúr), Trichinopoli, and Madura. Area (1874), 1046

square miles; pop. (1874), 316,695, almost entirely agricultural. The Parliamentary Abstract for 1877-78, however, returns the area at 1380 square miles, with 1279 villages and 77,638 houses, but gives the population the same as the above. The country is for the most part a flat plain, interspersed with small rocky hills, some of which are crowned by old forts. In the south-west, hills and jungles are found, but elsewhere the State is well cultivated. There are 3000 tanks, some of considerable size. The gross revenue of the State is about 5 *lákhs* of rupees (say £50,000), but the alienations of land revenue are extensive. Members of the Rájá's family hold 110,000 acres, 95,627 acres have been granted to temples, and 9584 acres to almshouses. The *ináms* or rent-free grants held by Bráhmans, and the various tenures of service, amount to 100,000 acres. After these deductions, only 2 *lákhs* (say £20,000) of the revenue is payable to the Rájá.

The first connection of the British Government with this chief, then usually called Tondaman (a family name derived from the Tamil word meaning 'a ruler'), was formed at the siege of Trichinopoli in 1753, when the British army greatly depended on his fidelity and exertions for provisions. Subsequently, he was serviceable in the wars with Haidar Alí and in the Pálegár war, the latter being the name given to the operations against the usurpers of the large *zamíndárí* of Sivaganga in Madura District after the cession of the Karnatic. In 1803, he solicited as a reward for his services the favourable consideration of his claim to the fort and district of Kilanelli situated in the southern part of Tanjore. This claim was founded on a grant by Pratáp Sinh, Rájá of Tanjore, and on engagements afterwards entered into by Colonel Braithwaite, General Coote, and Lord Macartney. The Government of Madras granted the fort and district of Kilanelli; and the cession was confirmed by the Court of Directors, with the condition that the district should not be alienated, and that it should revert to the British Government upon proof being given at any time that the inhabitants laboured under oppression.

The present Rájá, Rámachandra Tondaman Bahádur, has received a *sanad* granting the right of adoption. He maintains a military force of 126 infantry, 21 cavalry, and 3260 militia, besides armed servants and watchmen.

Púdúkottái (*Poodoocottah*).—Chief town of the State of the same name, Madras. Lat. 10° 23′ N., long. 78° 51′ 51″ E.; pop. (1874), 13,978, of whom 7987 are returned as males and 5991 females.

Pú-gan-doung (*Poo-gan-doung*).—Revenue circle in the Than-lyeng township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Consists almost entirely of a plain, the western portion of which is under rice cultivation. Pop. (1877-78), 10,257; revenue, £7569.

Pú-hto (*Poo-hto*).—Revenue circle in the Kama township of Thayet

District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 48 square miles, of which about 41 are hilly and uncultivable waste; pop. (1877), 2645; gross revenue, £570.

Pukhra.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated 5 miles east of the Gumti river, on the Rái Bareli and Haidargarh road. Pop. (1869), 3383, of whom 1005 are Bráhmans. Fine Sivaite temple and handsome masonry bathing *ghâts*. Pukhra is the headquarters of the estate of Pukhra Ansári, belonging to the Amethi Kshattriyas.

Puláli. — One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £480; tribute of £35 is paid to the British Government, and £4, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Pulgáon.—Railway station in Wardha District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 44′ N., and long. 79° 21′ E., near the river Wardha, which has a picturesque waterfall close by. The site was previously unoccupied; but when the spot was selected for the station, land was also set aside for a village. A road connecting Pulgáon with the cotton marts of Deolí and Hinganghát is nearly completed, and another running north to Arví and Ashtí has been laid out. Pulgáon has a police station house, and a yearly fair has been started. The Hindus deem it a holy place, and have built a temple in the neighbourhood.

Puliangudi.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated on the Madura road, in lat. 9° 10′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 26′ 15″ E. Pop. (1871), 6810, inhabiting 1618 houses.

Pulicat (*Paliyaverkadu*).—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras. Lat. 13° 25′ 8″ N., long. 80° 21′ 24″ E.; pop. (1871), 4903, inhabiting 846 houses. The town lies at the southern extremity of an island which divides the sea from the large lagoon called the Pulicat Lake, which is about 37 miles in length by from 3 to 11 in breadth. This salt-water lake is under the influence of the tide, and must have been produced by an inroad of the sea during a storm, when it topped the low ridge of the coast-line. Pulicat was the site of the earliest settlement of the Dutch in India. In 1609, they built a fort here, and called it Geldria; and in 1619, they gave the English a share in the pepper trade with Java (Eastwick). Later, it was the chief Dutch Settlement on the Coromandel coast. It was taken by the British in 1781, and permanently occupied by them in 1795. The backwater is connected with Madras by Cochrane's Canal. There used to be a considerable trade between this port and the Straits Settlements, but of late years this has declined so much that the Customs establishment has been withdrawn, and only duty-free goods are allowed to be landed after obtaining permission from Madras. The old Dutch cemetery, which was rescued from decay by Sir Charles Trevelyan, contains many well-cut tombstones, some of them nearly 300 years old.

Pulikonda (*Pullicondah*).—Village in North Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 54′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 59′ E., on the road from Madras by Vellore to Bangalore; distant from the former place 97 miles, and from the latter 115 miles. It lies at the base of a high hill near the right bank of the Palár. There is a fine pagoda here.

Pulney.—Town and hills in Madura District, Madras.—*See* PALNI.

Pú-lú (*Poo-loo*).—Tidal creek in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It branches from the Myoung-mya river in about lat. 16° 35′ 30″ N., and then runs south and west into the Rwe. Navigable at all times by river steamers plying between Rangoon and Bassein.

Pú-lú-pyeng-ma-gún (*Poo-loo-pyeng-ma-goon*).—Revenue circle in the Myoung-mya township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 28 square miles; pop. (1877), 4285; gross revenue, £1456. The southern portions are liable to inundation; water communication good.

Púna.—District and town in Bombay.—*See* POONA.

Punadra.—One of the petty States in the Mahi Kánta Agency, Bombay; situated on the Watruk river. Estimated area under cultivation, 16,650 *bighas;* pop. (1872), 2814. The revenue is returned at £1203; and tribute of £37 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The Miah of Punadra, Abhi Sinh, is a Mukwána Koli, converted to Islám. The Miahs observe a sort of mixed Muhammadan and Hindu religion, giving their daughters in marriage to Muhammadans of rank, and marrying the daughters of Koli chiefs. On their death, their bodies are buried, and not burnt.

Punákha.—The winter capital of Bhután State, on the Bhagni river, lat. 27° 32′ N., long. 89° 53′ E. Punákha lies about 100 miles north-east of Dárjíling, has but a scanty and poor population, but derives some importance as the seat of the Bhután Court and Government during the winter months. It was selected for this purpose owing to its mild climate, and comparative accessibility from the Indian plains.

Púnamallu (*Poonamallee, Pondamalái*).—Town in Saidapet *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras. Lat. 13° 2′ 40″ N., long. 80° 8′ 11″ E.; pop. (1871), 4733, inhabiting 1102 houses. A military cantonment, with a Magistrate and District *munsif.* Post office and Government rest-house. No garrison is stationed here at present; but there are a few European pensioners.

Punása.—Town in the north of Nimár District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 14′ N., and long. 76° 26′ E., 33 miles from Khandwá. Once a considerable place, held by Tuár chiefs. The fort, built in 1730 by Rám Kusal Sinh, afforded a refuge for European families during the Mutiny in 1857. The country round is mostly waste, having never recovered from the ravages of the Pindárís. The large

tank was repaired by Captain French in 1846. A market is held every Saturday.

Pundri.—Town in Karnál District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 45′ 30″ N., long. 76° 36′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 4749; municipal revenue in 1876-77, £112, or 5d. per head of population (5430) within municipal limits.

Pundúr.—Tract of country in Keunthál State, Punjab, lying between 30° 58′ and 31° 4′ N. lat., and between 77° 35′ and 77° 42′ E. long. (Thornton). It consists of a mountain ridge, running north-east and south-west, with an estimated elevation of from 6000 to 7000 feet above sea level. It formerly belonged to Júbal State, but after the expulsion of the Gúrkhas, it devolved upon the East India Company, who transferred it to Keunthál. Estimated pop. 3000.

Punganúr.—Headquarters of the Punganúr *zamíndárí* in North Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 13° 21′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 36′ 33″ E., on a plateau 2000 feet above the sea. Punganúr was one of the Cuddapah Paláyáms, and possessed considerable importance at one time, the Pálegár having 5000 men under him. In 1642 the country was taken by the Marhattás, and in 1713 it was occupied by the Cuddapah Nawáb. In 1755 the Marhattás, and in 1774 Haidar Alí, subdued the Pálegár. After various vicissitudes, the family was restored by the British in 1799. One of the Pálegárs fell at the battle of Wandiwash. The town is prosperous, and contains good native houses. The temperature is much lower than in other parts of the District.

Punjab (*Panj-áb*, 'The Five Rivers').—Province of British India, under the administration of a Lieutenant-Governor; lying between 27° 39′ and 35° 2′ N. lat., and between 69° 35′ and 78° 35′ E. long. Area under direct British administration in 1876-77, 104,975 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1868, 17,611,498 (exclusive of Europeans and Eurasians). The Native States in dependence upon the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab had an estimated area in 1876-77 of 114,739 square miles, with an estimated population of 5,410,389 persons. The total area of the Province accordingly amounts to 219,714 square miles, and its gross (native) population to 23,021,887. The Punjab is bounded on the north by Kashmír (Cashmere) and the Hill States of Swát and Boner; on the east by the river Jumna (Jamuná), the North-Western Provinces, and the Chinese Empire; on the south by Sind, the river Sutlej (Satlaj), and Rájputána; and on the west by Afghánistán and Khelát. The capital of the Punjab is LAHORE, situated about the centre of the Province, but the principal city in population and importance is DELHI, the ancient metropolis of the Mughal dynasty.

The following table shows the Divisions and Districts of the

Punjab, and the Native States situated within the limits of the Province, with the area and population of each (*Twelfth Parliamentary Abstract*, published in 1878):—

AREA AND POPULATION OF TERRITORY UNDER THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR OF THE PUNJAB.

UNDER BRITISH ADMINISTRATION.

Divisions.	Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Population. (Census of 1868.)
Delhi, ...	Delhi, ...	1,277	608,850
	Gurgáon, ...	1,980	696,646
	Karnál, ...	2,352	610,927
Hissár, ...	Hissár, ...	3,540	484,681
	Rohtak, ...	1,811	536,959
	Sírsa, ...	3,121	210,795
Umballa (Ambála), .	Umballa (Ambála), .	2,621	1,035,488
	Ludhiána, . . .	1,368	583,245
	Simla, ...	18	33,995
Jalandhar (Jullundur),	Jalandhar (Jullundur), .	1,326	794,764
	Hoshiárpur, . . .	2,086	938,890
	Kángra, . . .	8,988	743,882
Amritsar (Umritsur), .	Amritsar (Umritsur), .	1,562	832,750[1]
	Gurdáspur, . . .	1,818	906,126[1]
	Siálkot, ...	1,955	1,005,004
Lahore, ...	Lahore, ...	3,659	789,666
	Gujránwála, . . .	2,563	550,576
	Firozpur (Ferozepore), .	2,739	549,253
Ráwal Pindi, . . .	Ráwal Pindi, . . .	6,218	711,256
	Jhelum (Jhílam), . .	3,910	500,988
	Gujrát, ...	2,029	616,347
	Sháhpur, . . .	4,700	368,796
Múltán (Mooltan), .	Múltán (Mooltan), . .	5,927	471,563
	Jhang, ...	5.702	348,027
	Montgomery, . . .	5,573	359,437
	Muzaffargarh, . .	2,954	295,547
Deráját, ...	Derá Ismáil Khán, .	7,096	394,864
	Derá Ghází Khán, . .	4,740	308,840
	Bannu, ...	3,171	287,547
Pesháwar, . . .	Pesháwar, . . .	2,497	523,152
	Hazára, ...	2,835	367,218
	Kohát, ...	2,839	145,419
Total under direct British Administration, .		104,975	17,611,498[2]

[1] The alteration in the population of these Districts is due to the transfer of the *tahsíl* of Batála from Amritsar to Gurdáspur, in 1869.
[2] Exclusive of 20,953 Europeans and Eurasians.

NATIVE STATES.[1]

	Area in Square Miles.	Population. (Census of 1868.)
Kashmír (Cashmere) and Jammu (Jummoo),	79,784	1,534,972
Patiála,	5,412	1,586,000
Jínd (Jheend),	985	190,475
Nábha,	804	226,155
Baháwalpur,	15,000	500,000
Chamba,	3,216	130,000
Pataudi,	50	20,990
Lohárú,	285	19,800[2]
Dujána,	100	27,000
Máler Kotla,	164	91,650[4]
Kalsia,	168	68,910[3]
Sírmúr (Náhan),	1,096	90,000
Kahlúr (Biláspur),	448	60,000
Bashahr,	3,320	90,000
Hindúr (Nálagarh),	256	70,000
Keunthál (including Ratesh),	116	50,000
Bágbal,	124	22,000
Baghát,	36	10,000
Jubbal,	288	40,000
Kumhársain,	90	10,000
Bhajji,	96	19,000
Máilog,	48	9,000
Balsán,	51	6,000
Dhámi,	26	5,500
Kuthár,	20	4,000
Kunhiár,	8	2,500
Mángal,	13	800
Bijá,	4	800
Darkuti,	8	700
Taroch,	67	10,000
Sangri,	16	700
Kapurthála,	620[2]	258,372
Mandi,	1,000	145,939[5]
Suket,	420	41,126[5]
Farídkot,	600	68,000
Total for Native States,	114,739	5,410,389
GRAND TOTAL,	219,714	23,021,887

Physical Aspects.—In its strict etymological sense, the Punjab, or region of the Five Rivers, comprises only the tract of country enclosed and watered by the confluent streams of the SUTLEJ (Satlaj), the BEAS (Biás), the RAVI, the CHENAB (Chináb), and the JHELUM (Jhílam). But modern territorial arrangements have included under the same designation three other well demarcated tracts, namely—the Sind Ságar

[1] The area and population of many of these States have been recently revised.
[2] Excluding possessions in Oudh. The population is taken from a recent Census.
[3] According to a Census taken in 1876-77.
[4] The population formerly given for Máler Kotla was confined to that of the Nawáb's personal estate.
[5] From recent information.

Doáb, or wedge of land between the Punjab Proper and the Indus; the Deraját, or narrow strip of country west of the Indus, and stretching up to the Suláimán Mountains; and the cis-Sutlej Districts, or tableland of Sirhind, between the Punjab Proper and the Jumna (Jamuná), the greater part of which belongs historically and physically to the North-Western Provinces, though now transferred for administrative purposes to the Lieutenant-Governor at Lahore. The Districts of Ludhiána, Umballa (Ambála), and Firozpur were placed under the Resident at Lahore after the first Sikh war (1845-46); those of Delhi, Gurgáon, Rohtak, Karnál, Sírsa, and Hissár under the Punjab Government after the Mutiny. The political relations of the Síkh States were placed under the Punjab Government as soon as it was constituted, and those of the petty Muhammadan States of Pataudí, Loharu, and Dujána, after the close of the events of 1857.

The Province also includes the isolated Himálayan valleys of Kángra, Kullu, Lahúl, and Spiti, and the glens of the Hazára Frontier among the outliers of the main Central Asian system and the Hindu Kúsh. Viewed as a whole, it presents the appearance of a gently sloping plain, leading from the snow-clad mountains which hem it in on the north and east, by a slight south-westward declivity, toward the barren sandy plateaux of Sind and Rájputána on the south and south-west. All its rivers, except the Jumna on its easternmost boundary, follow this general slope of the land, falling away from the great dorsal ridge of the Himálayas toward the outlet of the Indus into the Indian Ocean. Accordingly, its physical features depend entirely upon the action of the Indus and its tributaries as they cut their way through the yielding alluvial soil of the great north-western basin.

The Punjab plain belongs naturally to the same wide and level tableland as the desert of Rájputána and the thirsty Province of Sind. Suffering like the rest of Northern India from a scanty and precarious rainfall, it would present a similar expanse of barren sand to that which stretches along its southern border, were it not for the fertilizing influence of the great rivers, which take their rise among the snow-clad peaks of the Himálayas, and bring down a perennial supply of water during the driest seasons to the burnt and almost rainless country on either side. Flowing for a while, after leaving the hills, through a green submontane tract, irrigated by a fairly copious rainfall and by mountain torrents, they soon gather together all the waters of their minor tributaries, and scoop out channels in the friable soil of the alluvial plain. Each stream now flows in a constantly changing central channel, occupying the middle (or one side) of a broader valley, whose limits are marked by high banks of clay, which bound the level plateau above. The river valleys themselves, being irrigated by inundation, percolation, wells, or artificial canals, present a

general appearance of successful cultivation; but the high intermediate plain above stretches from stream to stream in a broad and undulating expanse of sterile sandhills and stunted vegetation. In places, canal irrigation, under British auspices, has spread fertility over these barren highlands; in other parts, the ceaseless industry of the cultivators has sunk wells as far down as 50 feet for purposes of cultivation, and to extraordinary depths for supplying water to man and beast. But, as a whole, the uplands, except in the vicinity of the hills, have little economical value for any other purpose than the grazing of cattle. Where the distance between the rivers is greatest, west of the low dividing ridge which cuts off the basin of the Jumna from that of the Five Rivers, a peculiarly barren region occupies the greater part of the British Districts of Sírsa and Hissár and the Native State of Patiála. Similarly, as the Five Rivers one after another unite their waters, and finally join the Indus near the south-western corner of the Province, the area naturally fertilized by their streams grows gradually smaller, till, after their union in a single channel, the dry plains of Baháwalpur, where cultivation depends almost entirely upon canals, lead on to the utter desert of Central Rájputána. Thus the Punjab (exclusive of the Jumna valley) may be said practically to consist of six confluent lines of cultivated soil, lying along either bank of the Indus and its five great tributaries, and separated by high wedge-shaped tongues of land, known as Doábs, or spaces between two rivers.

Starting from the extreme west, where the long range of the Suláimán Hills rises like a barrier above the British territories, the trans-Indus tract forms the first natural division of the Punjab Province. Its northernmost portion consists of the PESHAWAR valley, a circular glen or amphitheatre, encircled by mountains, through which the Kábul river flows down to join the Indus at Attock; together with the hilly District of KOHAT, a wild outlying mass of salt-bearing ranges, traversed by minor tributaries of the great river. Its southern half comprises the DERAJAT, a long strip of barren country, lying between the Suláimán Mountains and the Indus, and forming parts of BANNU and DERA ISMAIL KHAN Districts, together with the whole of DERA GHAZI KHAN. The entire length of this narrow belt consists on the west of a fertile submontane fringe, merging in the centre into a waterless desert, and sinking eastward into the fruitful lowlands of the Indus.

The valley of the Indus itself, which next succeeds as we pass eastward, consists of a long cultivated fringe along the river-side, above which rises the central plateau of the SIND SAGAR DOAB, or wedge of land between the Indus and the Jhelum (Jhílam). The northern portion of this wide Doáb comprises the deep mountain glens of HAZARA, a spur of British territory, running far into the heart of the Himálayan system; together with the hilly Districts of RAWAL PINDI,

JHELUM, and half of BANNU. From the foot of the SALT RANGE, however, in the last-named Districts, the elevated plain of the Sind Ságar Doáb stretches southward in a desolate expanse, till it finally subsides in MUZAFFARGARH District into a narrow tongue of lowland, enclosed and often inundated from side to side by the floods of the Indus and the Panjnad.

The valley of the Jhelum (which takes the name of Trimáb after its junction with the Chenáb and the Rávi, and that of Panjnad after receiving the united stream of the Sutlej and the Beas) bounds the Sind Ságar Doáb on the east. Above it rises, in its northern portion, the JETCH DOAB, a comparatively small wedge of land, enclosed between the confluent waters of the Jhelum and the Chenáb. Its north-eastern corner, just below the hills, comprising the British District of GUJRAT, possesses considerable fertility from the presence of numerous mountain streams; but its south-western portion, lying within the borders of SHAHPUR and JHANG, consists of the same wild country which characterises the central tableland throughout the whole Punjab plain.

Beyond the Chenáb, the RECHNA DOAB stretches eastward to the valley of the Rávi, and presents the same general features as its sister tracts. Close to the foot of the hills, SIALKOT District and the north-eastern half of GUJRANWALA derive fertility from the mountain streams; while along the banks of the boundary rivers, as well as in the valley of the Degh, a tributary of the Rávi, cultivation spreads in an almost unbroken sheet; but the central desert of Southern Gujránwála, JHANG, and MONTGOMERY, is one vast undulating plain of sand and scrub jungle.

Next in order comes the BARI DOAB, between the Rávi and the Beas or the Sutlej. The north-eastern half of this region, though not more favoured naturally than the neighbouring Doábs, has been converted into a cultivated country by the artificial irrigation from the BARI DOAB CANAL, which supplies the Districts of GURDASPUR, AMRITSAR (Umritsur), and half LAHORE. The central portion, however, comprising the greater part of Montgomery, presents the usual desolate features of the upland plain, only varied by the Rávi lowlands on one boundary, and a few irrigation cuts from the Sutlej on the other; while its extreme south-western angle, composing MULTAN District, stretches from stream to stream in one monotonous reach of desert plateau.

The two last of the Punjab rivers enclose the JALANDHAR (Jullundur) DOAB, which extends between the Beas and the Sutlej, and comprises the British Districts of HUSHIARPUR and JALANDHAR, together with the small Native State of KAPURTHALA. Its form is that of a nearly equilateral triangle, with its base resting upon the sub-Himálayan Hills, and it nowhere recedes sufficiently from their neighbourhood to include

any desert tract like that of the larger Doábs. In its rear stretches the extensive District of KANGRA, an outlying wedge of British territory, pushed across the Himálayas, and embracing the two Thibetan glens of Lahúl and Spiti.

The cis-Sutlej tract comprises a wide but for the most part barren region, extending from the Punjab Proper to the Jumna valley. Its north-eastern mountain portion bears the name of the SIMLA HILLS, from the well-known sanitarium and summer capital of the Indian Empire. This Himálayan region remains for the most part in the hands of petty native princes. At the foot of the hills, the fertile British District of AMBALA (Umballa) slopes away toward the thirsty level of PATIALA, JIND (Jheend), and other Native States, and leads on to the barren Districts of SIRSA and HISSAR, which verge upon the great desert of Rájputána. This central plateau between the Jumna and the Sutlej was formerly watered by the Ghaggar, the Saraswati (Sarsuti), and other streams, whose channels may still be traced through the depopulated plain; but the diversion of these rivers for purposes of irrigation elsewhere has turned the cultivated soil into a dreary waste. Numerous remains of wells and cities, however, attest its flourishing condition in earlier times. The newly constructed Sirhind Canal, into which it is expected that water will be admitted during the present year (1880), will greatly benefit this tract.

Last of all, in the extreme east, the Jumna valley, naturally a part of the North-Western Provinces, contains some of the most prosperous and thickly populated country in the whole Punjab. Besides the alluvial lowlands of the great boundary river itself, the WESTERN JUMNA CANAL spreads its fertilizing influence over the Districts of KARNAL, DELHI, and ROHTAK; while in the south, the hills of GURGAON, a continuation of the Rájputána plateau, supply numerous small torrents to the country at their base. A low range of sandstone also here runs northward, and ends on the Jumna near the city of Delhi.

Throughout the Punjab, except upon the hills, wood is scarce. The uplands are generally covered only with grass, shrubs, or low jungle of mimosa. Clumps of trees, however, especially palms, *pípals*, and banians, cluster around the village sites; the mango grows in the south-east Punjab; and in the Deraját large areas are covered with date trees. Government has done much to encourage arboriculture, both by forest conservation and by planting groves round cantonments and public buildings, or along roads and canals. The fauna of the Province includes tigers, lions, leopards, hyænas, lynxes, wolves, bears, jackals, foxes, and other carnivores; *nílgáis*, antelopes, deer, and other ruminants; wild boar, porcupines, monkeys, and bats; parrots, jungle-fowl, pheasants, partridges, quail, pelicans, eagles, vultures, and many other birds; crocodiles, cobras, and many poisonous snakes. Camels thrive

on the hot southern plains; herds of buffaloes revel in the water-side meadows, and excellent horses are bred in the north-eastern pasture lands, for the use of the chiefs and gentlemen, who pride themselves upon their equestrian habits.

History.—No part of India possesses greater or more varied historical interest than the Punjab. The earliest Aryan settlers entered the Peninsula by this Province. The story of the *Mahábhárata* centres around the city of Indraprástha, on the site of the modern Delhi, founded by the five Pándavas, Yudisthira and his brethren, in an unknown period, conjectured to be as remote as the 15th century B.C. Arriving from the yet more ancient capital of Hastínapur on the Ganges, the fair-skinned colonists expelled the dark Nágá aborigines, cleared the land of forest, and founded a great dynasty, whose conflict with their kinsmen the Kauravas forms the main subject of the Hindu *Iliad.* The Salt Range and other portions of the north-western hills are rich in legends of the mythical Pándava age. The obscure chronology of the *Puránas* alone sheds a glimmering ray of light upon the intervening period, until the time of Alexander's invasion in 327 B.C. By that date the Aryan race seems to have spread its ascendancy over Northern India, either subjugating or absorbing the aboriginal tribes. The Bráhmans already appear as the highest caste, and their religion as the national creed of the people. The Macedonian conqueror entered India from Bactria, crossed the Indus near Taxila, identified by General Cunningham with the ruins of SHAH-DHERI, in Ráwal Pindi District, and, after receiving the adhesion of Mophis or Taxiles, king of that city, proceeded with little resistance to the banks of the Hydaspes or Jhelum. Effecting the passage of the river at JALALPUR, in Jhelum District, he encountered the army of Porus (Purusha) at MONG, in Gujrát, and completely defeated the Indian monarch, with a loss of 12,000 slain. Porus himself was taken prisoner, but restored by Alexander to his entire kingdom. The conqueror halted for a month in the neighbourhood of the Hydaspes, and founded two cities, Nikaia and Bukephala; after which he overran the whole Punjab, as far as the Hyphasis or Sutlej, on its south-western border. East of that river, in the now barren cis-Sutlej tract, lay a powerful and fertile kingdom, which Alexander was most eager to attack; but the refusal of his troops to proceed any farther from home compelled him to fall back once more upon the Hydaspes. Here he embarked on board a fleet with which he intended to sail down the Indus, and met with no opposition, except at the hands of the Malli, who occupied the modern District of MULTAN. At the siege of their capital, which probably stood upon the same site as the modern city, Alexander received a severe wound, in revenge for which he put every person within the walls to the sword. After navigating the great river to its mouth, he despatched Nearchus

to explore the Persian Gulf, while he himself returned by the deserts of Baluchistán to Susa. The succeeding Indo-Bactrian dynasty, founded by Alexander's military successors, spread its sway over a considerable portion of the Punjab, and coins or other remains of Hellenic origin occur among almost all the ruined cities throughout the Province. Shortly after the retirement of Alexander, however, Chandragupta, King of Magadha, added the whole Punjab to his dominions (303 B.C.). A century later, the tide of Greek conquest again set eastward, and a Bactrian kingdom once more spread over North-Western India. Between 264–223 B.C., the empire of Asoka, the great Buddhist ruler of Upper India, and grandson of Chandragupta, extended over the country of the Five Rivers; and his rock edicts are found as far north as the Yusafzái valley in Pesháwar. Under this monarch, Buddhism appears to have been the dominant religion throughout the whole Punjab, where it still remained, though in a somewhat decadent condition, at the period of Hiouen Thsang's pilgrimage in the 7th century A.D. No record exists of the restoration of the earlier Hindu faith; the ruins of the Buddhist temples and monasteries are often rebuilt into Bráhman shrines and Muhammadan mosques. The undisturbed ascendancy of Bráhmanism between the downfall of Buddhism and the advent of Islám, was of short duration in the Punjab.

As early as the 7th century, Musalmán invasions from the west are said to have begun to devastate the Punjab. In 682 A.D., according to Ferishta, bands from Kermán, who had even then embraced the faith of Islám, wrested certain possessions from the Hindu princes of Lahore. It was not till 975, however, that Sabuktagín, governor of Khorásán, and father of the great Mahmúd, advanced beyond the Indus, to plant the Muhammadan power firmly in the heart of the Punjab. Jáipál, Rájá of Lahore, whose dominions extended from Kashmír (Cashmere) to Múltán, for a while successfully opposed the invader. But the Rájá unfortunately ventured to imprison the ambassadors whom Sabuktagín, now Sultán of Ghazní, had sent to Lahore to receive a promised ransom. On hearing of this insult, the Ghaznevide monarch, says Ferishta, 'like a foaming torrent hastened towards Hindustán,' defeated the perfidious Rájá, and compelled him to retreat to his capital, where the vanquished prince burned himself to death in despair. His successor, Anangpál, formed a strong confederacy against the Musalmán invaders, whom he succeeded during his lifetime in holding at bay. In 1022, however, during the reign of a second Jáipál, Mahmúd of Ghazní, son of Sabuktagín, marched suddenly down from Kashmír, siezed Lahore without opposition, and drove the Hindu prince to take refuge in Ajmere. Under Modúd, 1045 A.D., the Hindus laid siege to Lahore, now the Musalmán capital, but after six months of vain attempts, retired without success. 'Thus,'

says Al Birúní, 'the sovereignty of India became extinct, and no descendant remained to light a fire upon the hearth.'

Under the early Ghaznevide princes, the Punjab was governed by a viceroy at Lahore; but Masáúd III., having lost most of his dominions in Irán and Turán to the Seljuk Turks, transferred his capital to the banks of the Rávi early in the 12th century. From Lahore, the seat of empire was removed to Delhi by Muhammad Ghori, founder of the second Muhammadan dynasty, in 1160. Throughout the period of Pathán rule in Upper India, the Punjab Proper was governed by imperial deputies, though the capital of the Musalmán power lay always either at Agra, in the North-Western Provinces, or at Delhi, within the limits of the modern Province. Lahore itself formed the focus of the Tártar as opposed to the Afghán party, and the country as a whole was overrun both by the hordes of Chengiz Khán (1241) and of Timur (1397). The other principal historical events of this epoch comprise the rise of the Ghakkar power in Ráwal Pindi, and the gradual colonization of the tract between the Suláimán Mountains and the Indus by tribes of Baluchi or Afghán descent.

In 1524, the Mughal prince Bábar invaded India, on the invitation of Daulat Khán Lodi, governor of Lahore, and succeeded in conquering the whole Punjab, as far as Sirhind. Two years later, he again swept down from Kábul upon Hindustán, defeated the Afghán army in a decisive battle at Pánipat, entered Delhi as a conqueror, and founded the dynasty known to Europeans as that of the 'Great Mughal.' Under that magnificent line, the chief seats of the imperial family were at Lahore, Delhi, and Agra; and the Punjab formed the stronghold of the Mughal party against the reactionary Pathán house of Sher Sháh. During the most flourishing age of the Mughals, however, a power was slowly and unobtrusively arising in the Punjab, which was destined in the end to supplant the imperial sway, and to raise up a great independent monarchy in the valley of the Five Rivers. This power was the Síkhs, originally a mere religious sect, founded by Bába Nának, who was born near Lahore in the latter half of the 15th century, and who died at Dehrá Nának, on the Rávi, in 1539. A full account of the sect will be found in Prinsep's *History of the Punjab* (2 vols., 1846), and Cunningham's *History of the Síkhs* (2nd ed., 1853), to which works I must refer the reader for a complete or detailed narrative. Bába Nának was a disciple of Kabír, and preached as a new religion a pure form of monotheism, eagerly accepted by the peasantry of his neighbourhood. He maintained that devotion was due to God, but that forms were immaterial, and that Hindu and Muhammadan worships were the same in the sight of the Deity. His tenets were handed down by a succession of Gurus or spiritual leaders, under whom the new doctrine made steady but peaceful progress. Rám Dás, the fourth Guru, obtained

from the Emperor Akbar a grant of land on the spot now occupied by the city of AMRITSAR (Umritsur), the metropolis of the Síkh faith. Here he dug a holy tank, and commenced the erection of a temple in its midst. His son and successor, Arjun Mall, completed the temple, and lived in great wealth and magnificence, besides widely increasing the numbers of his sect, and thus exciting the jealousy of the Mughal Government. Becoming involved in a quarrel with the Imperial Governor of Lahore, Arjun was imprisoned in that city, where he died, his followers asserting that he had been cruelly put to death. 'This act of tyranny,' writes Elphinstone, 'changed the Síkhs from inoffensive quietists into fanatical warriors. They took up arms under Har Govind, the son of their martyred pontiff, who inspired them with his own spirit of revenge and of hatred to their oppressors. Being now open enemies of the Government, the Síkhs were expelled from the neighbourhood of Lahore, which had hitherto been their seat, and were constrained to take refuge in the northern mountains. Notwithstanding dissensions which broke out among themselves, they continued their animosity to the Musalmáns, and confirmed their martial habits until the accession, in 1675, of Guru Govind, the grandson of Har Govind, and the tenth spiritual chief from Nának. This leader first conceived the idea of forming the Síkhs into a religious and military commonwealth, and executed his design with the systematic spirit of a Grecian lawgiver. . . . But their numbers were inadequate to accomplish their plans of resistance and revenge. After a long struggle, Guru Govind saw his strongholds taken, his mother and his children massacred, and his followers slain, mutilated, or dispersed. He was himself murdered in 1708 by a private enemy at Nandair in the Deccan. The severities of the Musalmáns only exalted the fanaticism of the Síkhs, and inspired a spirit of vengeance, which soon broke out into fury. Under Guru Govind's principal disciple, Bánda, who had been bred a religious ascetic, and who combined a most sanguinary disposition with bold and daring counsels, they broke from their retreat, and overran the east of the Punjab, committing unheard-of cruelties wherever they directed their steps. The mosques were destroyed and the *mullás* killed; but the rage of the Síkhs was not restrained by any considerations of religion, or by any mercy for age or sex. Whole towns were massacred with wanton barbarity, and even the bodies of the dead were dug up and thrown out to the birds and beasts of prey. The principal scene of these atrocities was Sirhind, which the Síkhs occupied, after defeating the Governor in a pitched battle; but the same horrors marked their route through the country eastward of the Sutlej and Jumna, into which they penetrated as far as Saháranpur. They at length received a check from the local authorities, and retired to the country on the upper course of the Sutlej, between Ludhiána and the mountains.

This seems at that time to have been their principal seat; and it was well suited to their condition, as they had a near and easy retreat from it when forced to leave the open country. Their retirement on the present occasion was of no long continuance; and on their next incursions they ravaged the country as far as the neighbourhood of Lahore on the one side, and of Delhi itself on the other.' The Emperor himself, Bahádur Sháh, was compelled to return from the Deccan in order to proceed against the Síkhs in person. He shut them up in their hill fort at Daber, which he captured after a desperate siege, the leader Bánda and a few of his principal followers succeeding by a desperate sally in effecting their escape to the mountains. The death of Bahádur Sháh in 1712 probably prevented the extermination of the sect. During the dissensions and confusion which followed that event, the Síkhs were allowed to recruit their strength, and they again issued from their mountain fastnesses and ravaged the country. In 1716, however, Abdul Samad Khán, Governor of Kashmír, was despatched against them at the head of a large army by the Emperor Farrukh Siyyar. He completely defeated the Síkhs in several actions, took Bánda prisoner, and sent him to Delhi, where he was put to death along with several other of the Síkh chieftains. An active persecution ensued, and for some time afterwards history narrates little of the new sectaries.

In 1738, Nádir Sháh's invading host swept over the Punjab like a flooded river, 'furious as the ocean,' defeated the Mughal army at Karnál in 1739, and sacked the imperial city of Delhi. Though Nádir retired from India in a few months with his plunder, he had given the death-blow to the weak and divided empire. The Síkhs once more gathered fresh courage to rebel, and though again defeated and massacred in large numbers, 'the religion' gained new strength from the blood of the martyrs. The next great disaster of the Síkhs was in 1762, when Ahmad Sháh Duráni, the Afghán conqueror of the Marhattás at Pánipat in the preceding year, routed their forces completely, and pursued them across the Sutlej. On his homeward march he destroyed the town of Amritsar, blew up the temple, filled the sacred tank with mud, and defiled the holy place by the slaughter of cows. But, true to their faith, the Síkhs rose once more as their conquerors withdrew, and they now initiated a final struggle, which resulted in the secure establishment of their independence. By this time the religion had come to present very different features from those of Bába Nának's peaceful theocracy. It had grown into a loose military organization, divided among several *misls* or confederacies, with a common meeting-place at the holy city of Amritsar. The Mughals had nominally ceded the Punjab to Ahmad Sháh; but the Duráni Emperors never really extended their rule to the eastern portion, where the Síkhs established their authority not long after 1763. The Afghán revolution in 1809

facilitated the rise of Ranjít Sinh, a Síkh adventurer, who had obtained a grant of Lahore from Zamán Sháh in 1799. Gradually the able chieftain spread his power over the greater part of the Punjab, and even in 1809 attacked the small Síkh principalities on the east of the Sutlej. (*See* CIS-SUTLEJ STATES.) These principalities sought the protection of the British,—now masters of the North-Western Provinces, with a protectorate over the royal family of Delhi,—and an agreement was effected by which the States obtained the powerful aid of the British Government. In 1818, Ranjít Sinh stormed Múltán, and extended his dominions to the extreme south of the Punjab; and in the same year he crossed the Indus, and conquered Pesháwar, to which, shortly after, he added the Deraját, as well as Kashmír. The Mahárájá of the Síkhs had thus succeeded during his own lifetime in building up a splendid power, embracing almost the whole of the present Punjab Province, together with the Native State of Kashmír. On his death in 1839, his son Kharak Sinh succeeded to the throne of Lahore, but died, not without suspicion of poison, in the following year. A state of anarchy ensued, during which the Síkhs committed depredations on British territory, resulting in what is known as the first Síkh war in 1845. It is impossible, within the limits permitted to me, to attempt more than a bare enumeration of the great battles of that and the subsequent war.

The bloody fights of MUDKI (Moodkee), FIROZSHAH, ALIWAL, and SOBRAON ensured the British victory, and terms of peace were dictated to the vanquished at Lahore. A Council of Regency was appointed during the minority of the young Mahárájá, Dhulíp Sinh, and a British Resident took up his abode at Lahore. In 1848, however, the rebellion of Múlráj at MULTAN roused a general revolt throughout the Síkh kingdom; till the victory of GUJRAT (Feb. 22, 1849) reduced the Punjab to the condition of a British Province. On 29th March in the same year, the young Mahárájá, Dhulíp Sinh, transferred the sovereignty of his dominions to the East India Company, and accepted in return an annuity of £50,000 a year. The following were the terms of the cession:—'1st. His Highness the Mahárájá Dhulíp Sinh shall resign for himself, his heirs, and his successors, all right, title, and claim to the sovereignty of the Punjab, or to any sovereign power whatever. 2nd. All the property of the State, of whatever description and wheresoever found, shall be confiscated to the Honourable East India Company, in part payment of the debt due by the State of Lahore to the British Government, and of the expenses of the war. 3rd. The gem called the Koh-i-núr, which was taken from Sháh Shujá-ul-mulk by Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh, shall be surrendered by the Mahárájá of Lahore to the Queen of England. 4th. His Highness Dhulíp Sinh shall receive from the Honourable East India Company, for the support of himself, his relatives, and the servants of the State, a pension of not less than

four, and not exceeding five, *lákhs* of Company's rupees per annum. 5th. His Highness shall be treated with respect and honour. He shall retain the title of Mahárájá Dhulíp Sinh, Bahadúr, and he shall continue to receive during his life such portion of the above-named pension as may be allotted to himself personally, provided he shall remain obedient to the British Government, and shall reside at such place as the Governor-General of India may select.' His Highness has for long resided in England, where he has purchased estates, married, and settled down as an English nobleman. The Punjab, after being annexed in 1849, was first governed by a Board of Administration, and, after some intermediate changes, was erected into a Lieutenant-Governorship. The headquarters of the Lieutenant-Governor were fixed at Lahore, and the new Province was divided into Districts upon the ordinary British model. Since that period the Punjab has made steady progress in commercial and industrial wealth. Canals have spread irrigation over its thirsty fields; railways have opened out new means of communication for its surplus produce; and British superintendence, together with the security afforded by our firm rule, has developed its natural resources with astonishing rapidity. During the Mutiny of 1857, the country remained comparatively quiet; and, after the close of that great struggle, most of the Districts on the western bank of the Jumna, including Delhi, were transferred from the North-Western Provinces to the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab.

The territories now under the administration of the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab comprise:—(1) The Punjab west of the river Beas, annexed in March 1849, on the close of the second Síkh war. (2) The Jalandhar Doáb and the hill District of Kángra, which were ceded to the British Government by the treaty of Lahore concluded in March 1846, after the termination of the first Síkh war. (3) The country east of the river Sutlej, formerly designated the cis-Sutlej States, and including—(*a*) the possessions of Mahárájá Dhulíp Sinh of Lahore, on the left bank of the Sutlej, which were annexed to the British territories in December 1845; (*b*) such of the States taken under the protection of the British Government in 1808-09 as subsequently lapsed on the death of chiefs without heirs, or were confiscated and brought under British administration in January 1847, in consequence of the misconduct of their chiefs in the first Síkh war; (*c*) the hill District of Simla, a portion of which was acquired after the Gúrkha war of 1814-16, and the remainder subsequently obtained by lapse, purchase, or exchange for other territory. (4) The Delhi territory west of the river Jumna, which was transferred from the Government of the North-Western Provinces to that of the Punjab in February 1858, and separated into the two Divisions of Delhi and Hissár.

Form of Administration.—On the annexation of the Punjab in March

1849, a Board of Administration for its affairs was constituted, to which the Commissioners of the trans-Sutlej and cis-Sutlej States were also made subordinate. The Board was abolished in February 1853, and its powers and functions were vested in a Chief Commissioner, subordinate to whom a Judicial Commissioner and a Financial Commissioner were appointed. After the transfer of the Delhi territory from the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab and its dependencies were constituted a Lieutenant-Governorship from the 1st January 1859,—Sir John Lawrence, who had hitherto been the Chief Commissioner, being appointed the first Lieutenant-Governor.

In 1866, a Chief Court, consisting of two judges, a barrister, and a civilian, was substituted for the Judicial Commissioner, and was constituted the final appellate authority in criminal and civil cases, with powers also of original criminal jurisdiction in cases where European British subjects are charged with serious offences, and of original civil jurisdiction in special cases. In 1869, a third judge, a civilian, was added to the Court.

Population.—The Census of 1868, which was taken over an area of 101,829 square miles, disclosed a total number of 17,611,498 inhabitants (exclusive of Europeans and Eurasians), distributed among 35,740 villages or townships, and dwelling in 4,124,857 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 172·95; villages or townships per square mile, 0·35; houses per square mile, 40·50; persons per village, 492·77; persons per house, 4·27. Classified according to sex, there were 9,595,434 males and 8,016,064 females; proportion of males, 54·48 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 3,390,054; females, 2,858,031; total children, 6,248,085, or 35·42 per cent.: above 12 years—males, 6,205,380; females, 5,158,033; total, 11,363,413, or 64·58 per cent. Besides this native population, the Province contained 17,574 Europeans and 3379 Eurasians; total, 20,953 persons of European descent. The population is most dense in the Jumna valley, the Bári Doáb and the Jalandhar Doáb, as well as along the banks of the six great rivers, and in the submontane tract. It grows sparser in the Deraját and the hilly north-western Districts; while the central plateaux between the great rivers are almost uninhabited, and the mountain glens of Kángra and its dependencies support only a few scattered families.

Religion.—The Census of 1868 returned the population, classified according to religion, as follows:—Muhammadans, 9,337,685; Hindus, 6,112,087; Síkhs, 1,144,090; Buddhists and Jains, 36,190; Christians, 22,154; and 'others,' 959,292. The percentage of Muhammadans to the total population accordingly amounts to 53·02; of Hindus, to 34·70; and of Síkhs, to 6·50. The Muhammadans are most numerous in the

Peshāwar Division, where they form 93 per cent. of the whole population; and in the Derajāt, Rāwal Pindi and Múltán Divisions, which are mainly peopled by tribes of Afghán or Baluchi descent. They become less numerous in the eastern Punjab, and form a very small element in the tract between the Sutlej and the Jumna, amounting to only 21 per cent. in Delhi District, and 13 per cent. in Rohtak. In the remote Kángra valleys, the faith of Islám is professed by only 6 per cent. of the inhabitants. The Hindu creed musters the greatest proportion of followers in the cis-Sutlej Divisions of Delhi and Hissár, and among the primitive mountaineers of Kángra. It sinks from 84 per cent. in Rohtak District and 72 in Delhi, to 40 in Jalandhar, 17 in Amritsar, and 14 in Lahore. In the extreme north-west, it yields entirely to the Muhammadan element, falling as low as 8 per cent. in Ráwal Pindi, 5 in Pesháwar, and 4 in Kohát. But the Síkh faith forms the distinguishing feature of the Province in its religious aspect. Though numerically weak, it is socially and politically of the highest importance, as the Síkhs constituted the dominant class at the period of annexation, and still compose the mass of the gentry in the region between the Five Rivers. They gather most thickly around the sacred city of Amritsar, in which District they amount to 24 per cent. of the people, and in Lahore, Firozpur, Jalandhar, and Ludhiána, where they compose from 14 to 29 per cent. The number is much smaller in the hilly north-western Districts and the cis-Sutlej tracts, while the Síkhs almost disappear in the trans-Indus Divisions of the Derajāt and Pesháwar, as well as in the valley of the Jumna. Even in the southern angle of the Punjab Proper, around Múltán and Muzaffargarh, the Síkh element forms a mere fraction in the population. The Síkhs are famous for their personal bravery, and their religion prompts them to hold life of little importance, one of their strictest sects being known as Akali or immortal. They are very illiterate, and Ranjít Sinh could neither read nor write. Their sacred books bear the name of the *Granth*.

Ethnical Divisions, etc.—Among the Muhammadans, the Patháns are found chiefly in the north-western hill Districts, where they form the bulk of the population. Of the Rájput Muhammadans, the Bhattis of the Central Divisions demand notice from their former dominant position, as do also the Ránghars of Delhi and Hissár, and the Janjhuas of Ráwal Pindi. The Játs, who have embraced the faith of Islám where the Musalmáns predominate, and elsewhere either retain their original creed or have become Síkhs, form the backbone of the cultivating community, except in the trans-Indus region. The Gújars are chiefly herdsmen on the dry central plateaux. The Ghakkars of Ráwal Pindi compose the gentry of the hill country in that neighbourhood. A large number of Kashmírí immigrants are found as weavers in the larger towns.

Among the Hindus and Síkhs, Bráhmans are usually found. The Rájputs inhabit the hills and plains east of the Rávi. The Banias compose the trading class in the eastern Districts; but beyond the Rávi and in the southern Divisions, the Aroras take their place. The Chamárs comprise the lowest stratum of the population, only just emancipated from serfdom under British rule. The agricultural classes are returned at 9,683,580, as against 7,927,918 persons otherwise employed.

The Province contained, in 1878, 16 towns with a population, according to a town Census taken in 1875-76, exceeding 20,000 souls, namely—(1) DELHI, the ancient capital of the Mughal Empire (with suburbs), 160,553; (2) AMRITSAR (Umritsur), the metropolis of the Síkh religion, 136,166; (3) LAHORE, the modern seat of Government for the Province (with suburbs), 128,441; (4) PESHAWAR, the chief station on the north-western frontier, 58,430; (5) JALANDHAR (Jullundur), 50,924; (6) MULTAN (Mooltan), the principal commercial centre of the southern Punjab (with suburbs), 50,875; (7) LUDHIANA, 40,835; (8) KARNAL, 24,015; (9) BATALA, 26,929; (10) SIALKOT, 32,989; (11) PANIPAT, 24,500; (12) RIWARI, 25,190; (13) AMBALA (Umballa) TOWN, 26,258; (14) FIROZPUR (Ferozepore), 20,592; (15) BHIWANI, 33,220; (16) GUJRANWALA, 20,362. [Some of these returns for 1876 differ slightly from those for the town and municipal areas given in the respective articles.] The Province contained, in 1868, 132 towns with populations between 5000 and 20,000. The gross urban population then amounted to 1,972,656, or 11·2 per cent. of the inhabitants. SIMLA, the summer capital of India, stands on an isolated patch of British territory among the mountains of the north-eastern border; and MARRI (Murree), in Ráwal Pindi District, forms the great hill sanitarium for the western half of the Province.

Agriculture.—The tillage of the Punjab extends mainly along the foot of the boundary mountains, and stretches in long strips by the side of the great arterial rivers. Out of a total area of about 65 millions of acres, 23½ millions are returned as under cultivation (1879), while 13 millions are cultivable, but still untilled, and 30 millions are absolutely barren. The agricultural year is divisible into the *rabí* or spring harvest, and the *kharíf* or autumn harvest. For the former the principal crop is wheat, covering an area in 1875 of 6,282,687 acres. Next come barley, 1,818,433 acres, and gram, 1,604,132 acres. Peas and other pulses cover a small area, and tobacco and vegetables are grown on garden plots. Tea cultivation is followed with success on 5623 acres, chiefly in Kángra. The area of the principal *rabí* crops in 1875 amounted to 10,961,257 acres. The principal *kharíf* crops extended over 9,610,166 acres, of which 802,014 acres were sown with rice, 4,613,720 with millets (*joár* and *bájra*), 1,039,594 with Indian corn, and 1,604,006

with pulses. Cotton was grown upon 651,150 acres, and sugar-cane upon 344,993. The methods of agriculture still retain their primitive simplicity, scarcely differing from those in use during the Vedic period. Artificial irrigation is almost universal, except in the country immediately below the hills, and in the inundated tracts beside the great rivers. The Bári Doáb, the Western Jumna, and the Sutlej inundation canals supply water to a large area; while the Sirhind Canal, now (1879) in course of construction, will add greatly to the fertility of the dry cis-Sutlej tract. Manure is applied only in the vicinity of villages, and to the best crops, such as sugar-cane, cotton, and rice, when grown near wells. Rotation of crops is confined chiefly to manured soils, where, after a rich crop, poorer and poorer staples are sown successively until the manure is exhausted; when another dressing becomes necessary, followed by a similar cycle of crops. For example, in the cis-Sutlej tract, sugar-cane is succeeded by wheat, and wheat by cotton, so that the manure once laid down suffices for three years. Cultivation is quickly but steadily advancing in the Punjab. The area under tillage was from 20 to $23\frac{1}{2}$ millions of acres in the ten years ending 1878-9. The irrigation by Government canals rose during the same period from $1\frac{1}{3}$ to over $1\frac{3}{4}$ millions of acres (increase, say half a million); irrigation from wells, water-courses, and other private works, from $4\frac{2}{3}$ to $5\frac{1}{3}$ millions of acres (increase, say $\frac{3}{4}$ million). Total increase in irrigation during the ten years, nearly $1\frac{1}{4}$ million acres, or about 17 per cent. Not only did the general area under tillage increase, but the area under the more valuable crops increased in an even greater ratio. Thus (in round figures) the area under wheat was $5\frac{1}{2}$ million acres in 1869, and 7 millions in 1879; oil-seeds in 1869 occupied nearly half a million acres, and in 1879 upwards of three-quarters of a million acres; sugar-cane, which in 1869 covered 325,831 acres, in 1879 had increased to 412,879; indigo rose within the same period from 32,444 to 93,528 acres; and tea from 5521 to 10,174 acres. The selling price of land rose from 18 years' purchase, calculated on the land revenue demand of 1869, to $25\frac{1}{2}$ years' purchase in 1879. The average incidence of the land revenue per cultivated acre fell during the same period from $25\frac{3}{4}$ pence to $22\frac{3}{4}$ pence. Wages and prices have both risen greatly through the action of railways. Prices of food grains ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1876:—Wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; barley, 33 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 5d. per cwt.; gram, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 7d. per cwt.; *joár*, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; rice, 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5d. per cwt.

Land Tenures.—The following account of the prevailing land tenures of the Province is quoted in a slightly condensed form from the *Punjab Administration Report* for 1872-73, pp. 9-16:—

'According to the statistics of 1872–73, the Punjab has an area of 65,283,050 acres, or nearly 102,005 square miles. Returns of tenure exist for 30 Districts, being wanting only in the case of Kohát and Hazára; but the Jhang return must be rejected, as regards area at least, as it shows the entire area of the District, much of which is waste land, the property of Government, or held by private owners. There remain 29 Districts, with an area of 90,462 square miles. In these Districts, 1301 villages, with an area of 4446 square miles, are held by 3579 proprietors of the landlord class; and 29,558 villages, with an area of 63,039 square miles, by 1,955,928 cultivating proprietors. Taking the Province as a whole, it may be estimated that between one-fifth and one-sixth of the area is the property of Government; while upwards of four-fifths belongs to private owners. The greater part of the area belonging to Government is, however, little better than a desert, and could not profitably be brought under cultivation without the aid of extensive works of irrigation. Some of the more favourably situated portions are preserved as forest or grazing lands, and others are held under lease from Government for purposes of cultivation; but almost the entire cultivated area of the Province is included in the lands of private owners.

'These lands are held subject to the payment of land revenue to the State, or to grantees holding from the State; and their revenue at present exceeds £2,200,000 per annum, of which more than £320,000 are received by assignees who had, on various grounds, claims to consideration from Government. In some cases, these assignments are of the nature of the release of the revenue of lands belonging to the assignees, but they have no necessary connection with proprietary right; and in the majority of instances the grantees are merely entitled to receive the revenue payable to Government, the amount of which is limited in the same way as if it were paid direct to Government.

'From the above figures it will be seen that the great mass of the landed property in the Punjab is held by small proprietors, who cultivate their own land in whole or in part. The chief characteristic of the tenure generally is, that these proprietors are associated together in village communities, having to a greater or less extent joint interests, and under our system of cash payments, limited so as to secure a certain profit to the proprietors, jointly responsible for the payment of the revenue assessed upon the village lands. It is almost an invariable incident of the tenure, that if any of the proprietors wishes to sell his rights, or is obliged to part with them in order to satisfy demands upon him, the other members of the same community have a preferential right to purchase them at the same price as could be obtained from outsiders.

'In some cases, all the proprietors have an undivided interest in all

the land belonging to the proprietary community,—in other words, all the land is in common; and what the proprietors themselves cultivate is held by them as tenants of the community. Their rights are regulated by their shares in the estate, both as regards the extent of the holdings they are entitled to cultivate and as regards the distribution of profits; and if the profits from land held by non-proprietary cultivators are not sufficient to pay the revenue and other charges, the balance would ordinarily be collected from the proprietors according to the same shares.

'It is, however, much more common for the proprietors to have their own separate holdings in the estate; and this separation may extend so far that there is no land susceptible of separate appropriation which is not the separate property of an individual or family. In an extreme case like this, the right of pre-emption and the joint responsibility for the revenue, in case any of the individual proprietors should fail to meet the demand upon him, are almost the only ties which bind the community together. The separation, however, generally does not go so far. Often, all the cultivated land is held in separate ownership, while the pasture, ponds or tanks, etc., remain in common. In other cases, the land cultivated by tenants is the common property of the community; and it frequently happens that the village contains several well-known subdivisions, each with its own separate land, the whole of which may be held in common by the proprietors of the subdivision, or the whole may be held in severalty, or part in separate ownership and part in common.

'Throughout the greater part of the Province, the organization of the proprietors of land into village communities has existed from time immemorial, and is the work of the people themselves, and not the result of measures adopted either by our own or by previous Governments. Indeed, these communities have sometimes been strong enough to resist the payment of revenue to the Government of the day; and before our rule, nothing was more common than for them to decide their disputes by petty wars against each other, instead of having recourse to any superior authority to settle them. But in some localities, the present communities have been constituted from motives of convenience in the application of our system of settlement. Thus, in the Simla Hills, and in the more mountainous portions of Kángra District, the present village communities consist of numerous small hamlets, each with its own group of fields and separate lands, and which had no bond of union until they were united for administrative purposes at the time of the Land Revenue Settlement. In the Múltán Division, again, while regular village communities were frequently found in the fertile lands fringing the rivers, all trace of these disappeared where the cultivation was dependent on scattered wells beyond the

influence of the river. Here the well was the true unit of property; but where the proprietors of several wells lived together for mutual protection, or their wells were sufficiently near to be conveniently included within one village boundary, the opportunity was taken to group them into village communities. The same course has been followed in some parts of the Deraját Division, where small separate properties readily admitting of union were found. These arrangements were made possible by the circumstance that the village community system admits of any amount of separation of the property of the individual proprietors, and by care being taken that in the internal distribution of the revenue demand it should be duly adjusted with reference to the resources of the separate holdings. They also, in general, involved the making over in joint ownership to the proprietors of the separate holdings of waste land situate within the new boundary in which no private property had previously existed. In some cases, the village communities, while holding and managing the land as proprietors, are bound to pay a quit-rent to superior proprietors under whom they hold. The settlement is made according to circumstances, either with the superior proprietor, who collects the Government revenue as well as his quit-rent from the communities, or with the communities in actual possession of the land, who pay the land revenue to Government and the quit-rent to the superior proprietor. In either case, the amount which the superior proprietor is entitled to collect is determined at settlement, as well as the amount of the land revenue demand. In the 30 Districts from which returns of tenure have been received, only 435 villages, with an area of 514½ square miles, are shown as held by superior proprietors collecting the Government revenue in addition to their own quit-rent; but this evidently does not include cases where the superior proprietors are also assignees of the Government revenue. There are also 13,169 holdings of superior proprietors who collect only their own quit-rent and are not responsible for the Government revenue. The latter are in many cases persons to whom the quit-rent was given in commutation of more extensive proprietary rights, of which they had been dispossessed in favour of the present holders.

'There are sometimes also proprietors holding lands within the estates of village communities, but who are not members of the communities, and are not entitled to share in the common profit, nor liable for anything more than the revenue of their own lands, the village charges ordinarily paid by proprietors, and the quit-rent, if any, payable to the proprietary body of the village. The most common examples of this class are the holders of plots at present or formerly revenue free, in which the assignees were allowed to get proprietary possession in consequence of having planted gardens or made other improvements, or

because they had other claims to consideration on the part of the village community. In the Ráwal Pindi Division, also, it was thought proper to record old-established tenants, who had never paid anything for the land they held but their proportion of the land revenue and village expenses, and had long paid direct to the collectors of the revenue—but were not descended from the original proprietary body—as owners of their own holdings, while not participating in the common rights and liabilities of the proprietary community. Except in the Jhelum and Ráwal Pindi Districts, where a small quit-rent was imposed, these inferior proprietors were not required to pay anything in excess of their proportion of the Government revenue and other village charges. In Gujrát, at the time of the first regular settlement, this class held no less than 10 per cent. of the total cultivated area, and in Ráwal Pindi it paid 9 per cent. of the revenue. In Ráwal Pindi the persons recorded as proprietors of their own holdings only were in some cases the representatives of the original proprietary body, *jagírdárs* having established proprietary rights over what were formerly the common lands of the village.

'In Múltán and Muzaffargarh, and perhaps in some other Districts in the south of the Punjab, a class of proprietors distinct from the owners of the land, is found under the name of *chakdárs*, *sillandárs*, or *kasúrkhwárs.* These are the owners of wells, or occasionally of irrigation channels, constructed at their expense in land belonging to others. They possess hereditary and transferable rights, both in the well or irrigation channel and in the cultivation of the land irrigated from it, but may be bought out by the proprietor repaying the capital they have expended. They are generally entitled to arrange for the cultivation, paying a small fixed proportion of the produce to the proprietor, and being responsible for the Government revenue. Sometimes, however, the management of the property has been made over to the proprietor, who pays the Government revenue; and the *chakdár* receives from him a fixed proportion of the produce, called *hak kasúr.* Or a third party may manage the property, paying the Government revenue and the *hak kasúr*, out of which the *chakdár* pays the proprietor's allowance. In Ráwal Pindi, also, there is a small class of well proprietors in the position of middle-men, paying cash rent to the owner of the land, and receiving a grain rent from the cultivator.

'In the 30 Districts from which returns are available, the number of tenants is about 1,100,000, as against 3661 landlord proprietors and nearly 2,000,000 cultivating proprietors.

'Tenants entered as having rights of occupancy are 378,997, 50,685 as holding conditionally, 1,232,467 as tenants-at-will, and 33,932 as holders of service grants excused from revenue or rent other than the customary service by the proprietors. After the necessary correction

for the Rohtak District, the tenants-at-will can scarcely be estimated at more than 650,000; and this number and the number of tenants entered as holding conditionally has been considerably reduced by the revision of tenancy entries in the Amritsar Division and the Lahore and Gujránwála Districts; while the number of tenants with right of occupancy has been correspondingly increased. Tenants with rights of occupancy have a heritable, but not, except in the case of a few of a superior class, transferable tenure.'

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The great centres of trade in the Punjab are Múltán, Lahore, Amritsar, Ambála, Delhi, and Pesháwar. The channels of traffic fall into four great divisions. That on the north frontier comprises the trade with Kashmír, Ladákh, Yárkand, Chinese Thibet, and Central Asia generally; its imports being valued in 1875-76 at £622,991, and its exports at £341,242. That on the west frontier includes the trade with Kábul, Tírah, and Siwestán, with imports valued at £937,188, and exports at £840,017. By both these routes, the traffic inward consists of *charas* (an intoxicating preparation of Indian hemp), dyes of various kinds, goat's wool, raw silk, fruits, and nuts, wood, furs and feathers, and shawl cloth; while indigo, grain, metals, salt, spices, tea, tobacco, Indian and European cotton cloth, hides and leather, form the chief items of return trade. The imports on the south frontier, from Sind and Rájputána, were valued in the same year at £1,016,877; and the exports at £1,985,390. But by far the largest trade is that by the eastern frontier with the North-Western and Central Provinces, Bengal, Bombay, Oudh, Madras, and Rájputána. The imports on this route were valued at £10,021,107, and the exports at £2,713,142. The total value of the registered trade accordingly amounted to £18,477,958, of which £12,598,165 represents imports, and £5,879,792 exports. As the Punjab is essentially an agricultural country, the exports consist chiefly of grain, cotton, salt, and other raw produce; while the imports comprise cloth, hardware, and other manufactured articles. The mineral wealth of the Province is almost confined to its rich deposits of rock-salt. (*See* MAYO MINES, KALABAGH, SALT RANGE, and JHELUM, SHAHPUR, and KOHAT Districts.) The principal manufacture of the Punjab is that of cotton cloth, valued in 1875-76 at £2,008,554. The other main items include wood-work (£614,846), iron (£413,636), leather (£480,876), gold and silver lace (£329,405), silk (£184,159), and shawls (£133,634). The total number of manufactories at work in the Province in 1875-76 was returned at 501,165, employing 1,407,911 workmen, with an estimated out-turn of £5,398,282.

Communications, etc.—The railway system of the Punjab is a continuation of that which extends from Calcutta into the North-Western Provinces, and it will shortly be put into direct connection with the sea at

Karáchi (Kurrachee) in Sind. The East Indian Railway sends a branch across the Jumna at Delhi, whence the Rájputána State Railway runs southward through Delhi and Gurgáon Districts into Rájputána, and will ultimately be extended to Bombay. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway continues the main system through the Gangetic Doáb, crossing the Jumna into this Province from Saháranpur District, and runs *viâ* Ambála, Ludhiána, Jalandhar, and Amritsar to Lahore. Thence the Northern State Railway, now (1879) completed to Jhelum, will continue the line as far as Pesháwar on the north-west frontier; while the Indus Valley Railway already unites Lahore and Múltán with Baháwalpur, Sukkur (Sakhar), and Karáchi. The total length of railways in the Province in 1875-76 amounted to 663 miles. A large part of the heavy traffic is conveyed by country boats on the Five Rivers, and thence by the Indus to the sea. Excellent metalled roads also connect the main centres of trade and the District headquarters. In 1878-79 there were 1467 miles of metalled and 23,156 miles of unmetalled roads in the Province. Total length of telegraph lines, 2766 miles in 1879 as against 761 miles in 1869. The Imperial Post Office conveyed 9,887,643 letters in 1869, and 16,306,050 in 1879. During the ten years 1869-1879, the number of newspapers published in the Province increased from 13 to 36.

Administration.—The Province is divided into 10 Divisions, namely, DELHI, HISSAR, AMBALA, JALANDHAR, AMRITSAR, LAHORE, RAWAL PINDI, MULTAN, the DERAJAT, and PESHAWAR, each of which see separately. The total revenue of the Province for the year 1876-77 amounted to £3,837,599, of which £2,005,814 was contributed by the land tax. The expenditure for the same year was returned at £1,945,858. The total number of tribunals of all classes in operation in the Punjab during the year 1875-76 was 615; and the judges included 60 covenanted civilians, 60 commissioned military officers, 53 uncovenanted civilians, and 455 native magistrates. The official returns show 38,122 persons convicted of all cognizable offences, great or small, during the same year. The total number of prisoners confined in all jails in the Province amounted to 48,974, of whom 2051 were females; and the daily average number to 14,550, of whom 518 were females. Education has made steady progress under British rule. The Province contained in 1875-76 as many as 2067 colleges or schools, with a total of 115,413 pupils, of whom 58,790 were Hindus, 43,533 Muhammadans, 11,074 Síkhs, 1025 Christians, and 991 'others.' There were 200 municipal towns in 1876-77, with an aggregate revenue of £217,147, and an expenditure of £212,445.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Punjab plains is noticeable for its dryness and heat. Near the hills, the rainfall is comparatively high, the annual amount in 1875 being 156 inches at Dharmsála, 79 inches

at Simlá, 55 at Jalandhar, and 53 at Gurdáspur. As we recede from the mountains, however, it fell to 48 at Siálkot, 46 at Gujránwála, 43 at Amritsar, and 33 at Lahore and Ambála. Jhelum had only 28 inches, Sirsá 19, Sháhpur 11, and Jhang 8. Finally, in the desert tract on the south-west, the rainfall at Muzaffargarh sank to 5 inches, at Múltán to 3·7, and at Montgomery to 1·9. The highest mean monthly temperature was 95° F. in July at Múltán, and the lowest, 38° F. in January at Simlá. The principal endemic disease is fever. The total number of deaths from all causes reported during 1875 was 447,208, or 25·57 per thousand of the population. Of this ratio, 16 per thousand were asigned to fever, 1·57 to bowel complaints, 0·78 to small-pox, 0·36 to cholera, and 0·30 to injuries, including accidents from snakes or wild beasts. The Province contained in the same year a total of 150 hospitals or charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief to 1,037,835 persons, of whom 29,615 were in-patients.

Punjab Native States.—A number of States in dependence on the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab (Panjáb). Estimated area, 114,739 square miles; estimated pop. 5,410,389. A list of the States, with the area and population of each, will be found at the beginning of the preceding article (PUNJAB).

Punnah.—State and town in Bundelkhand.—*See* PANNA.

Pún-na-riep (*Poon-na-riep*).—Village in the Mo-gnyo township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3351.

Punniar.—Battle-field in Gwalior State, Central India.—*See* PANNIAR.

Púnpún.—River of South Behar, rising in the extreme south of Gayá District, in lat. 24° 30′ N., and long. 84° 11′ E. It flows towards the Ganges, into Patná District, in a north-easterly course, more or less parallel to that of the Son, till it approaches the canal at Naubatpar, where it takes a bend to the east, crossing the Patná and Gayá road about 10 miles from Bánkipur, and joining the Ganges at Fatwá. About 9 miles above its junction with the Ganges, the Púnpún is joined by the Múrhar. Lat. 25° 28′ 45″ N., long. 85° 13′ 30″ E. The width of the Púnpún, which is enclosed with high steep banks, is here about 100 yards.

Púr.—Town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 57′ 15″ N., long. 84° 3′ E.; pop. (1872), 5213.

Puraiyár.—Town in Tanjore (Tanjávúr) District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 38′ N., and long. 79° 25′ E., close to Tranquebar. Pop. (1871), 5864, inhabiting 1286 houses. One of the stations of the S.P.G. Mission.

Purandhar.—Chief town of Purandhar Subdivision, Poona (Púna) District, Bombay; with two hill forts. It lies in lat. 18° 16′ 33″ N., and long. 74° 0′ 45″ E.; 16 miles south of Poona city. The highest point

of the mountain of Purandhar is upwards of 1700 feet above the plain below, and 4472 feet above the sea. The forts are situated from 300 to 400 feet below the summit. Their defences, like most of the hill forts in this part of the country, are of perpendicular rock, and are weakened rather than strengthened by curtains and bastions of masonry. Purandhar was one of the first places which the Marhattá chief Sivají brought under his possession, by practising on the fears of its defenders. In 1665, it was invested by the forces of Aurangzeb, under the command of Diler Khán; and though the defence was obstinate, and the success of the undertaking doubtful, Sivají appears to have been so intimidated at the prospect of its fall, that he surrendered the place, and entered the service of Aurangzeb, from whom, however, he soon revolted, recapturing the fort in 1670. After the power of the Peshwás had superseded that of the descendants of Sivají at Poona, it was the usual stronghold to which the former retreated when unable to remain in safety at the capital. In 1818, Purandhar was invested by a British force, and, after a brief resistance, surrendered at discretion. The fort commands a passage through the Gháts, called the Purandhar Ghát. Here, in 1776, was concluded a treaty between the British Government and the Marhattá States, but its conditions were never fulfilled, being overruled by a subsequent agreement between the Bombay Government and Raghoba.

Puranigudam.—River-side village in Nowgong District, Assam, whose inhabitants are engaged in fishing and trade.

Purárá.—Chiefship in the south-east of Bhandára District, Central Provinces, along the Bágh river; comprising 6 villages. Area, 39 square miles, of which 7 are cultivated. The chief is a Gond, and the population consists mainly of Gonds and Goárás. The forests contain good building timber, but are infested by tigers. Purára, the chief village (lat. 21° 9′ N., long. 80° 26′ E.), has an indigenous school.

Purí.—A District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, forming the southern portion of the Orissa Division; lying between 19° 27′ 40″ and 20° 16′ 20″ N. lat., and between 85° 0′ 26″ and 86° 28′ E. long. Area (1878), 2472 square miles; population in 1872, 769,674 souls. Bounded on the north by the Native States of Bánkí and Athgarh; on the east and north-east by Cuttack District; on the south-east and south by the Bay of Bengal; and on the west by the Madras District of Ganjám, and by the State of Ranpur. The headquarters of the District are at PURI TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District generally may be divided into three tracts—west, middle, and east. The western extends from the right bank of the Dayá river across the stone country of Dándimál and Khurdhá, till it rises into the hills of the Tributary States. It contains the only mountains found in Purí. A low range, beginning in Dompára

and running south-east in an irregular line towards the Chilká Lake, constitutes a watershed between this District and the Mahánadi river. The most important peaks are in KHURDHA. On the north of the Chilká they become bold and very varied in shape, and throw out spurs and promontories into the lake, forming island-studded bays, with fertile valleys running far inland between their ridges. The middle and eastern divisions consist entirely of alluvial plains, the south-western part of the Mahánadi delta. They are watered by a network of channels, through which the most southerly branch of that river, the Koyákhái, finds its way into the sea. The middle tract comprises the richest and most populous *parganás* of the District; the eastern is less thickly peopled, and in the extreme east loses itself in the jungles around the mouths of the Deví stream. The following scheme briefly shows the river system of the District:—

Koyákhái	Kusbhadrá	Práchí Kusbhadrá	Kusbhadrá	Bay of Bengal.
	Bhárgaví	Bhárgavi	Bhárgaví	Chilká Lake.
		Nún Dayá	Dayá	

All these rivers are navigable by large boats during the rainy season, but none is deep enough for boats of 100 *maunds*, or say 4 tons burden, throughout the whole year. Only one of them, the Kusbhadrá, enters the sea. It follows a very winding course, and is of little value for navigation. Its bed has silted up, and its floods devastate the surrounding country. The three rivers most important to the people of Purí are the Bhárgaví, the Dayá, and the Nún, which all enter the Chilká Lake after running widely diverse courses. In the rainy season they come down in tremendous floods, that burst the banks and carry everything before them. In the dry weather, they die away into long shallow pools in the midst of vast expanses of sand. Their banks are generally abrupt, and in many parts are artificially raised and protected by strong dikes. The total length of Government embankments in Purí District amounted in 1866 to $316\frac{3}{4}$ miles, with 43 sluices, maintained at an annual cost of £7, 16s. per mile.

The total cost to Government of inundations in Purí District amounted, for construction of embankments, etc., and remission of revenue alone, to £79,963 in fifteen years, equivalent to a charge of 10 per cent. on the total land revenue of the District. In addition to this large sum, it is estimated that the single flood of 1866 destroyed standing crops to the value of £643,683 in Purí District alone, notwithstanding that 10,620 acres of fertile land are permanently left untilled for fear of inundation. The truth is, that the Mahánadi, in time of flood, pours double the quantity of water into the Purí rivers that their channels are capable of carrying to the sea. The result is,

that the surplus overflows in spite of embankments and protective works. The whole District lives in readiness for such calamities; and the deaths by drowning reported to the police, during the three years ending in 1870, averaged only 117 per annum. These figures, however, by no means represent the total loss of life from this cause. The excessive floods also render tillage precarious, and the crops uncertain; so that in localities most subject to inundations, the rents are brought down to one-fifth of the rates obtained for the same quality of land in parts protected from the violence of the rivers. Of the 24 fiscal divisions (*parganás*) of the District, 12 are still so completely at the mercy of the rivers that more than 50 per cent. of their area was flooded in 1866.

The coast-line of Purí consists of a belt of sandy ridges, varying from 4 miles to a few hundred yards in breadth. It contains no harbours of any importance. Purí Port is simply an unprotected roadstead, open from the middle of September to the middle of March. During the remainder of the year, the surf does not allow of the vessels (chiefly country brigs) frequenting the port being laden or unladen. The principal lakes in the District are the Sar and the Chilká. The former is a backwater of the river Bhárgaví, and is 4 miles long by 2 broad. The CHILKA is an inland sea in the extreme south-east corner of Orissa, separated from the ocean by a narrow sandy ridge. On the west the lake is hemmed in by lofty mountains, and on the south it is bounded by the hilly watershed separating Orissa from Madras. It is a pear-shaped expanse of water, 44 miles long, of which the northern half has a mean breadth of 20 miles, while the southern barely averages 5 miles in width. Its smallest area is returned at 344 square miles in the dry weather, increasing to about 450 in the rainy season. Its mean depth is from 3 to 5 feet, and its bed is in some parts slightly below low-water mark. From December to June the lake is salt. The theories respecting the origin of the Chilká are given at length in the article under that heading. The scenery of the Chilká is very varied, and in places exceedingly picturesque. On its eastern side lie the islands of PARIKUD, which have silted up behind, and are now partially joined to the ridge of land shutting off the Chilká from the sea. Salt-making is largely carried on in this part of the District. The Purí rivers enter the Chilká at its northern end; and it is in the tracts situated here that the greatest suffering occurs in times of general inundation. There are no revenue-paying forests in Purí District; but the jungles yield honey, bees-wax, *tasar* silk, the dye called *gundi*, and various medicinal drugs. The timber-trees include *sál*, *sissu*, ebony, jack-wood, mango, *piásál*, *kurmá*, etc. Bamboos and rattan-canes abound. Game of every kind is plentiful; but in the open part of the country the larger wild beasts have been nearly exterminated. Of fishes there is an

endless variety, and the fisheries have been estimated to give employment to 30,073 professional fishermen.

History.—The general history of Purí is that of Orissa. The only two noteworthy political events that have taken place since the District passed into our hands, together with the rest of the Province, in 1803, are the rebellion of the Mahárájá of Khurdhá in 1804, and the rising of the *páiks* or peasant militia in 1817-18.

The Rájá of Khurdhá, although stripped of a considerable portion of his territory, had been left by the Marhattás in comparative independence within his own *kilá* or fort. When we entered the Province, the Rájá passively espoused our cause, and the decision of the British Commissioners to retain the *parganás* taken by the Marhattás was silently acquiesced in. But after the European troops had returned to Madras, and the native force at Cuttack had been considerably reduced by the necessity of establishing detached outposts in different parts of the country, the Rájá thought that a favourable opportunity had arrived for recovering the lost territory. As a tentative measure, he sent one of his servants in July 1804 to collect the rents of one of the villages, named Bátgáon, lying within the Mughalbandí. This messenger was summarily ejected; and the Commissioners addressed to the Rájá a strong remonstrance, but the warning appears to have had but little effect. In September of the same year (1804), the Rájá was detected in an intrigue relative to the affairs of the Purí temple. He was therefore forbidden to issue orders to any person whatever residing within the limits of Mughalbandí territory, without the express sanction of the Commissioners. In October, exactly one month after the issue of this order, the Rájá's troops—if a disorderly mob of *páiks* and peons can so be called—made a raid on the villages in the vicinity of Pipplí; and this affair, though partaking more of the nature of a large *dakáití* or gang-robbery than of an organized and preconcerted military aggression, nevertheless occasioned considerable alarm. The majority of our forces had returned to Madras, and what few troops remained behind were scattered over a considerable area. The nature of the country rendered speedy communication and rapid concentration impossible. Troops were sent for from Ganjám, and a detachment speedily marched from Cuttack. The rebels, driven out of Pipplí, retreated to the fort at Khurdhá, followed by our troops. In three weeks the approaches, which were stockaded and fortified with strong masonry barriers, were carried by storm; but the Rájá made good his escape southwards. A few days later, he surrendered, and his territory was confiscated. The Rájá was released in 1807 and allowed to reside in Purí, his estate being managed as a Government *khás mahál*, and an allowance made for his maintenance.

In 1817-18, the *páiks* or landed militia rose in open rebellion against the oppressions suffered at the hands of the farmers, *sabarákhárs*, and

other underlings, to whom was entrusted the collection of the revenue; and also against the tyrannies of a venal police. They found a natural leader in one Jagabandhu, an officer who had inherited from his ancestors the post of commander of the forces of the Rájá in Khurdhá, and ranked next to the Rájá himself. He had been unlawfully deprived of his estate, and was consequently reduced to beggary. For nearly two years he derived his maintenance from the voluntary contributions of the people, and wandered about attended by a ragged tribe of followers, bearing the insignia pertaining to his former position. The rebels attacked the police station and other Government offices at Bánpur, where they killed upwards of a hundred men, and carried off about £1500 of treasure. The civil buildings at Khurdhá were burnt to the ground, and another body of the insurgents advanced into Lembái *parganá*, and murdered one of our native officials, who had incurred their displeasure. On the report of these occurrences, the authorities at Cuttack at once despatched a force, one detachment of which marched direct to Khurdhá, and another to Pipplí. After some severe fighting, British authority soon re-established itself everywhere. The Rájá was captured in Purí town as he was on the point of taking flight, and was removed to Calcutta, and placed in confinement in Fort William, where he died in November 1817. The country has been gradually restored to order and tranquillity; and at the present day, Khurdhá is a profitable and well-managed Government property, and the cultivators are a contented and prosperous class. The present Rájá of Purí was convicted in 1878 of murder, and sentenced to penal servitude for life. Purí District is of surpassing interest as containing the sacred shrine of Jagannáth, which, with the festivals held there, is fully described in the article on PURI TOWN.

Population.—A Census, roughly taken by the police in 1854, returned the population of Purí District at 700,000. In 1866, after the famine, the houses were counted by the police, and, after allowing 5 inhabitants to each, the population was estimated at 528,712. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 769,674 persons, dwelling in 3175 villages and 143,920 houses. Average density of population, 311 per square mile; average number of inhabitants per village, 242; average number of persons per house, 5·3. Classified as to sex, there were—males, 389,449; females, 380,225; proportion of males in total population, 50·6 per cent. Classified as to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 138,629; and females, 123,743; total children, 262,372: above 12 years—males, 250,820; and females, 256,482; total adults, 507,302: grand total, 769,674. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 739,636, or 96·1 per cent. of the District population; Muhammadans, 11,586, or 1·5 per cent.; Christians, 576; 'others,' 17,876, or 2·3 per cent.

The native population is nominally divided according to the ancient fourfold classification of Bráhmans, Kshattriyas, Vaisyas, and Súdras. In reality, it is divided into the Bráhmans, or priests; the Kshattriyas, or royal and military class; and the Súdras, who comprise the residue of the population. In order, however, to maintain some show of keeping up the ancient fourfold division, several classes are admitted to hold a position half-way between the Súdras and the Kshattriyas. The most important of these are the Karans, who correspond to the Káyasths or writer caste of Bengal. The bulk of the population consist of Uriyá-speaking castes, but many little colonies from other parts of India have settled in the District. There is a considerable sprinkling of Bengalis among the official and landed classes. A number of Telingás have come from the south, and established themselves along the coast, on the shores of the Chilká, and around the mouths of the rivers. Almost the whole boat traffic of the District is in their hands. The Kumtís are immigrants from the adjoining District of Ganjám. The trading classes contain families who have come from Bhojpur, Bundelkhand, and other parts of North-Western India. A scattered Marhattá population survives from the time when the country was in the hands of their race. They live chiefly by trade, or enjoy little grants of land, and form a very respectable, although not a numerous class. The Musalmáns, who also represent a once dominant race in Orissa, exhibit no such powers of adapting themselves to their altered circumstances. They are generally poor, proud, and discontented. They contain representatives of Afghán families from beyond the confines of Northern India; but, as a rule, they are the descendants of the common soldiery, camp-followers, and low-caste Hindu converts. There are also two hill tribes, the Kandhs and the Savars or Saurás; for a further account of whom, see ORISSA TRIBUTARY STATES.

The population of the District is entirely rural, and the only town containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants is Purí itself, with a resident population (1872) of 22,695. There are 1934 villages with less than 200 inhabitants; 928 with from 200 to 500; 227 with from 500 to 1000; 78 with from 1000 to 2000; 7 with from 2000 to 3000; and 1 with from 20,000 to 50,000; grand total, 3175. The chief towns in the District are—PURI, the capital, and the seat of the worship of Jagannáth; pop. (1872), 22,695: PIPPLI, 25 miles from Purí, the centre of considerable trade in rice and cloth: and BHUVANESWAR, the temple city of Siva, and a place of pilgrimage, containing shrines in every stage of Orissa art. Buddhism, for ten centuries, was the prevailing religion of Orissa; but its only traces are to be found in the cave dwellings and rock habitations of the priests and hermits, and in recently deciphered inscriptions. Their principal settlement was at KHANDGIRI, about

half-way between Purí and Cuttack. The Snake, Elephant, and Tiger Caves here (for a description of the latter see UDAYAGIRI), and a two-storied monastery, known as the Queen's Palace (RANI-NUR), are the most interesting excavations. They form relics of the three distinct phases through which Buddhism passed. The first, or ascetic age, is represented by the single sandstone cells, scarcely bigger than the lair of a wild beast, and almost as inaccessible; the second, or ceremonial age, is shown in the pillared temples for meetings of the brotherhood, with commodious chambers for the spiritual heads attached to them; the third, or fashionable age of Buddhism, reached its climax in the Queen's Palace, adorned with a sculptured biography of its founder. Sun-worship is one of the religions into which Buddhism disintegrated; and the most exquisite memorial of this is the temple of KANARAK upon the Orissa shore, now a picturesque ruin. (For a full account of these temples, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xix. pp. 72-91.)

Agriculture.—No trustworthy figures are available for the area under cultivation. In 1870, it was returned at 1158 square miles, out of a then total area of 2504 sq. miles. It has been calculated that 800,000 acres, or 1250 square miles, would be a nearer approximation. Purí is strictly a rice-growing tract. Of rice crops, the following are the most important:—The *biáli*, *sárad*, *dáluá*, and *manduá*. The *sárad* or winter crop is transplanted as a rule, a process ensuring a much larger return. Pulses, jute, hemp, flax, and oil-seeds are also produced. Manure is sparingly employed; irrigation is effected from wells, tanks, and rivers. Rotation of crops is not very generally practised. Among miscellaneous crops are—tobacco, grown on low moist lands; cotton, sown early in the cold weather, and reaped in May or June, on *sárad* rice land; sugar-cane, on high land, with abundant moisture, or with capabilities of irrigation; turmeric (*haldí*); *báigun* (Solanum melongena), on homestead land; potatoes, red pepper, and *pán* or betel-leaf. The total crop of rice is estimated at about 5 millions of cwts.; the cotton at about 21,000 cwts.; and the pulse at about 25,000 cwts. It is estimated that about 60,000 cwts. of rice are annually exported —one-third by sea, and two-thirds by land and the Chilká Lake; but the above figures must be received with caution. The yield per acre is from 16 to 36 cwts. of unhusked paddy, and from 8 to 16 cwts. of husked rice. The average out-turn from fair land may be put down at 10 cwts. of rice. Thirty acres are a large holding, and 80 acres an unusually large one. A husbandman with 10 acres is supposed to be as well off as a small retail shopkeeper, or a servant earning about Rs. 8, or 16s. a month. The husbandman dresses worse, but he has more to eat. The cultivators, as a class, are deeply in debt to the landholders, who make advances of money and rice to their tenants. A large proportion of them hold at fixed rates,

and represent the *tháni rayats* of the Settlement papers, who hold their land under leases (*kálipattás*), granted by the Settlement officers in 1836-37, and remaining in force until the next Settlement in 1897. The average rates of rent in Purí District vary from 6s. 3d. in the deltaic upland to 3s. 3d. in the neighbourhood of the Chilká Lake. The average for *sárad* rice land yielding only one crop is 5s. 10d. per acre; for the same land yielding a second crop of cotton, 6s. 3d. Of land suited to special crops, sugar-cane land fetches 10s. per acre; tobacco land, 14s.; and *pán* land, £1, 5s. Wages are lower in Purí than in Cuttack or Balasor. The most common rate of wages for permanent employment is Rs. 2, or 4s., per month, with a suit of cold-weather and warm-weather clothing: altogether, this would be in money Rs. 24, or £2, 8s., a year; in clothes, Rs. 3, or 6s.; and in occasional donations, Rs. 6, or 12s.: in all, Rs. 33, or £3, 6s., a year. For occasional labour, the rate is from 3d. to 4d. per diem. Skilled labour fetches about 6d. a day. In salt manufacture, the rate of remuneration is 2 annas, or 3d., per *maund* (82 lbs.) of the out-turn, all at the risk of the labourer. It takes 4 men to make 400 *maunds* of salt in a fair season of three months; and in the end it has been estimated that they will only receive Rs. 50, or £5. The average price of rice (calculated from the prices between 1871 and 1874) was—in Purí Subdivision, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d., per cwt., and in Khurdhá Subdivision, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d., per cwt. The average price of pulses in Khurdhá was 11 *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 2d. per cwt. The price of ordinary coarse rice has doubled within the last thirty years. Thus people are working at the same rate of wages now, when a rupee buys only 32 *sers* of rice, which prevailed formerly when 64 *sers* could be bought for the same sum.

Natural Calamities.—The District is liable to disastrous floods and famines. Of the thirty-two years ending 1866, twenty-four were years of flood so serious as to require remissions of revenue to the extent of £41,993. If to this we add £1393 remitted for the drought in 1865-66, we have a total loss of £43,386. At the same time, the sum of £35,577 has been expended by Government on embankments and other protective works. In 7 villages, on the north of the Chilká, one-fourth of the whole area is exempted from payment on account of its exposure to inundation. By the flood of 1866, more than 412,000 persons were driven suddenly out of house and home into the midst of a sea between 7 and 9 feet deep. The unhappy inhabitants of this region live in a constant state of preparation. Most of the hamlets have boats tied to the houses; and for miles, the high thatched roofs are firmly held down by bamboo stakes, so as to afford a refuge in time of flood. In 1866, the destruction of human life was great; the cattle, too, suffered terribly. Inundations are, as a rule, more calamitous than droughts, for, even if the rivers fail, the Province has its

own local annual rainfall of 55 inches in reserve. The famine of 1866 is estimated to have caused a mortality of not less than 35·81 per cent. on a population returned in that year at 588,841. (For a further account of the great famine of 1866, see ORISSA.)

Manufactures, etc.—Apart from a little weaving and pottery-making, the only manufacture of Purí is salt, which is made by solar evaporation, principally in Párikud and the tract to the north and east of the Chilká Lake. The process has already been described in the article on PARIKUD. Speaking generally, a Párikud salt-field consists of a little canal from the Chilká 'workings,' diverging at right angles upon either side. Each working is composed of a row of four tanks and a network of shallow pools, and is managed by from three to five men, who are paid by the piece, and earn about Rs. 3, or 6s., a month. The total cost of salt made in this way is about 8d. per cwt. In 1875-76, the total amount of salt manufactured in Purí was 67,170 *maunds*, realizing £38,544. The value of the sea-borne trade of the District in 1874-75 was £6066; 32 vessels, with a tonnage of 10,553, entered Purí Port. Since January 1876, a system of traffic registration has been introduced on the Grand Trunk Road between Calcutta and Madras, the registering station being at Rambhá, on the Chilká Lake, just beyond the Purí frontier. The chief exports are pulses, rice, vegetables, metals, salt, drugs, cotton, and silk goods. The imports include salt, unrefined sugar, and spices. The two main lines of road in Purí District are the Calcutta and Madras Trunk Road, and the Pilgrim Road from Cuttack to Purí.

Administration.—In 1877-78, the revenue of Purí District was returned at £62,512. The land tax amounted to £44,707 in 1829-30, to £45,973 in £1850-51, to £47,963 in 1870-71, and to £48,149 in 1877-78. Between 1850 and 1870, the number of separate estates had risen from 272 to 432, and the number of proprietors from 910 to 1191. In 1828-29, there were only 3 courts, revenue and judicial, in the District; in 1850, there were 7; in 1870-71, 13. In 1828-29, there was only 1 covenanted officer in Purí; there are now 3 covenanted civilians in charge. The regular police force in 1872 consisted of 428 men of all ranks. The municipal police numbered 83, and the village watch 2527. The total machinery, therefore, for protecting person and property consisted of 3038 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 0·81 of a square mile of area, or to every 253 of population. There are 2 jails in Purí, viz. the District jail at the civil station, and a Subdivisional lock-up at Khurdhá. In 1872, the daily average number of prisoners in jail was 92·23. In 1872-73, the number of schools was 112, attended by 2802 pupils. By March 1875, the number of schools had increased to 182, and the number of pupils to 4155. There are 13 middle-class vernacular schools in the

District. A Sanskrit school has been established in Purí town. The District contains one municipality, viz. Purí town. The municipal income in 1876-77 amounted to £914.

Temperature, etc.—The average annual rainfall is 55·55 inches. The prevailing diseases of Purí District are malarial fever in all its varieties, elephantiasis, dysentery, and cholera. Fairs and religious gatherings are the great predisposing causes of epidemics. The Purí Pilgrim Hospital and Dispensary is the principal medical charity of the District. The average daily attendance in 1872 was 34·64. There is also a branch dispensary at Khurdhá.

Purí.—Headquarters Subdivision of Purí District, Bengal. Area, 1530 square miles; villages, 2126; houses, 95,992; pop. (1872), 488,751. Average number of persons per square mile, 319; villages, 1·38; persons per village, 229; houses per square mile, 62; inmates per house, 5. This Subdivision includes the 4 police circles (*thánás*) of Purí, Gop, Pipplí, and Labbá with the Chilká Lake.

Purí (commonly known as *Jagannáth*).—Chief town of Purí District, Bengal; situated on the coast, in lat. 19° 48′ 17″ N., and long. 85° 51′ 39″ E., separated from the sea by low sandy ridges. In 1825, according to Stirling, it contained 5741 houses. In 1841, the houses numbered 6620, inhabited by 23,766 persons. The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 22,695, of whom 12,077 were males and 10,618 females. The number of Hindus was 22,340; of Muhammadans, 217; of Christians, 14; and 'others,' 124. This is the ordinary resident population, but during the great festivals of Jagannáth, the number is sometimes swollen by as many as a hundred thousand pilgrims. Purí covers an area of 1871 acres, including the whole *kshetra* or sacred precincts of the town. It is a city of lodging-houses, being destitute alike of manufactures or commerce on any considerable scale. The streets are mean and narrow, with the exception of the principal avenue, which leads from the temple to the country-house of Jagannáth. The houses are built of wattle covered with clay, raised on platforms of hard mud, about 4 feet high, and many of them gaily painted with Hindu gods, or with scenes from the Indian epics. The intervening sandhills between the town and the beach intercept the drainage, and aggravate the diseases to which the overcrowding of the pilgrims gives rise. The sanitary measures which have been taken for the improvement of the town are of three kinds,—the first directed to lessen the number of pilgrims; the second, to mitigate the dangers of the road; and the third, to prevent epidemics in the town. In seasons of cholera or of other great calamity in Orissa, it would be possible to check the pilgrim stream, by giving warning in the Government *Gazette*, and through the medium of the vernacular papers. This was done in the famine year 1866, and native opinion supported the action of Government.

But such interference is resorted to only under extreme circumstances. The second set of preventive measures can be applied with greater ease, and with more certain results. Thousands of pilgrims die annually upon the journey from exhaustion and want of food, nor does it seem possible to lessen the number of deaths from these causes. Within the last few years, pilgrim hospitals have been opened along the main lines of road, and a medical patrol has been, through the energy and devotion of the Civil Surgeon of Purí, established in the vicinity of the holy city. Great good has been effected by these means; but a heavy drawback to their utility consists in the fact that the devotees will only enter an hospital at the last extremity, and the surgeons say that the great majority of pilgrim patients are beyond the reach of aid when they are brought in.

Cuttack city formerly suffered terribly from the passage of the pilgrim army, but a sanitary cordon is now maintained, and the result upon the public health has been marvellous. This inexpensive quarantine might easily be applied to other municipalities along the pilgrim highway. The devotees suffer no inconvenience; for as soon as the change in their route is known, little hamlets of grain-sellers spring up outside the cordon. Indeed, the pilgrims would be gainers by the change, in so far as they could purchase their food free of octroi or other municipal charges, where such dues are enforced.

The great difficulty has been to check the overcrowding in Purí town. In 1866, a Bill was introduced into the Bengal Council for the better regulation of the lodging-houses for pilgrims, and finally passed with amendments in 1868. It provides for the appointment of a health officer, to inspect the lodging-houses, and report on them to the Magistrate. Under this Act, no house may be opened without a licence; and licences are granted only upon a certificate from the surgeon, stating the suitability of the tenement for the purpose, and the number of persons which it can properly accommodate. Except in cases where the lodging-house keepers are persons of known respectability, their establishments continue under the surveillance of the health officer, and penalties are provided for wilful overcrowding, and similar breaches of the licence. Much good has resulted from the operation of this Act.

The Government offices lie upon the beach, with the sandy ridge between them and the town. The site is salubrious; but the dwellings of the English residents barely number 6 thatched cottages, much out of repair. The monsoon blows so fresh and cool from the sea, that in former days the officials from Cuttack used regularly to come to Purí during the hot weather. During the rains it is less healthy.

The following description of the shrine of Jagannáth at Purí is condensed from *Orissa* (vol. i. chaps. 3 and 4):—

For two thousand years, Orissa has been the Holy Land of the

Hindus; and from the moment the pilgrim passes the Baitaraní river, on the high road 40 miles north-east of Cuttack, he treads on holy ground. The Province is divided into four great regions of pilgrimage. On crossing the stream, the devotee enters Jájpur (lit. 'City of Sacrifice'), sacred to Párvatí, the wife of Siva. To the south-east lie the matchless ruins, the relics of sun-worship in Orissa; to the south-west, the temple city of Siva; and beyond this, nearly due south, is the region of pilgrimage beloved of Vishnu, known to every hamlet throughout India as the abode of Jagannáth, the Lord of the World.

As the outlying position of Orissa long saved it from conquest, and from that desecration of ancient Hindu shrines and rites which marks the Muhammadan line of march through India, so Purí, built upon its extreme south-eastern shore, and protected on the one side by the surf, and on the other by swamps and inundations, is the corner of Orissa which has been most left to itself. On these inhospitable sands, Hindu religion and Hindu superstition have stood at bay for eighteen centuries against the world. Here is the national temple, whither the people flock to worship from every Province of India. Here is the Swarga-dwára, the Gate of Heaven, whither thousands of pilgrims come to die, lulled to their last sleep by the roar of the eternal ocean. This great yearning after Jagannáth is to some extent the result of centuries of companionship in suffering between the people and their god. In every disaster of Orissa, Jagannáth has borne his share. In every flight of the people before an invading power, he has been their companion. The priests, indeed, put the claims of their god upon higher ground. 'In the first boundless space,' they say, 'dwelt the Great God, whom men call Náráyan, or Parameswar, or Jagannáth.' But without venturing beyond this world's history, the earliest of Orissa traditions discloses Purí as the refuge of an exiled creed. In the uncertain dawn of Indian history, the highly spiritual doctrines of Buddha obtained shelter here; and the Golden Tooth of the founder of the Buddhist faith remained for centuries at Purí, then the Jerusalem of the Buddhists, as it has been for centuries that of the Hindus.

Jagannáth makes his first historical appearance in the year 318 A.D., when the priests fled with the sacred image and left an empty city to Rakta Bahu and his buccaneers (see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xviii. p. 182). For a century and a half the idol remained buried in the western jungles, till a pious prince drove out the foreigners and brought back the deity. Three times has it been buried in the Chilká Lake; and whether the invaders were pirates from the sea, or the devouring cavalry of Afghánistán, the first thing that the people saved was their god.

The true source of Jagannáth's undying hold upon the Hindu race

consists in the fact that he is the god of the people. The poor outcast learns that there is a city on the far eastern shore, in which priest and peasant are equal in the presence of the 'Lord of the World.' In the courts of Jagannáth, and outside the Lion Gate, 100,000 pilgrims every year join in the sacrament of eating the holy food, the sanctity of which overleaps all barriers of caste, race, and hostile faiths. A Purí priest will receive food from a Christian's hand. The worship of Jagannáth, too, aims at a Catholicism which embraces every form of Indian belief and every Indian conception of the deity. He is Vishnu, under whatever form and by whatever title men call upon his name. The fetishism of the aboriginal races, the mild flower-worship of the Vedas, and the lofty spiritualities of the great Indian reformers, have alike found refuge here. Besides thus representing Vishnu in all his manifestations, the priests have superadded the worship of the other members of the Hindu trinity in their various shapes; and the disciple of every Hindu sect can find his beloved rites, and some form of his chosen deity, within the sacred precincts.

In the legendary origin of Jagannáth (see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xix. pp. 43-46), we find the aboriginal people worshipping a blue stone in the depths of the forest. But the deity at length wearies of primitive jungle offerings, and longs for the cooked food of the more civilised Aryans, upon whose arrival on the scene the rude blue stone gives place to a carved image. At the present hour, in every hamlet of Orissa, this twofold worship co-exists. The common people have their shapeless stone or block, which they adore with simple rites in the open air; while side by side with it stands a temple to one of the Aryan gods, with its carved idol and elaborate rites. Whenever the villagers are questioned about their creed, the same answer is invariably given. 'The common people have no idea of religion, but to do right, and to worship the village god.'

The first part of the legend of Jagannáth shadows forth the original importation of Vishnu-worship by an Aryan king from the north-west, and its amalgamation with the aboriginal rites existing in Orissa. It is noteworthy, that although a Bráhman figures in this as in all of the religious legends of the Hindus, he is not the principal person. An ancient text mentions Vishnu as the special god of the kingly and warrior caste; and it is the king who plays the chief part in introducing his worship.

The worship of Vishnu was not the first form of Aryan faith in these remote jungles. For centuries before the birth of Christ, the rock caves of Orissa resounded with the chants of Buddhist monks. But about the 4th century of our era, Buddhism gradually gave way to other developments of spiritual life, which took the form of Siva-worship. The great temple city of Siva, BHUVANESWAR, dates from the 7th century.

Both Sivaism and Vishnuvism were attempts to bring the gods down to men. The former plunged boldly into the abyss of superstition, and erected its empire without shame or scruple upon the ignorance and terrors of the people. The worship of Vishnu shrank from such lengths, and tried to create a system wide enough and strong enough for a national religion, by mixing a somewhat less base alloy with the fine gold of Aryan spirituality. It was a religion in all things graceful. Its gods are bright, friendly beings, who walk and converse with men. Its legends breathe an almost Grecian beauty. But pastoral simplicities and an exquisite ritual had no chance against a system like Sivaism, that pandered to the grossest superstition of the masses.

In the 11th century, the Vishnuvite doctrines were gathered into a great religious treatise, which forms one of the 18 *Puránas* or 'Ancient Sayings' devoted to Hindu mythology and legendary history. The *Vishnu Purána*, dating from about 1045 A.D., starts with an intolerance equal to that of the ancient code of Manu; and its stately theogony disdains to touch the legends of the people. Its cosmography is confined to the Aryan world. It declares, indeed, that there is one God; but this God is the God of the Bráhmans, to whom he has given the earth as an inheritance, and in whose eyes the ancient races are as demons or wild beasts. Vishnuvism had to preach a far different doctrine before it could become, as it has for ages been, the popular religion of Orissa.

From the 12th century, a curious change took place. Jagannáth, who had ever been the companion of the ruling race in Orissa, began to appeal to the eternal instincts of human liberty and equality.

The movement first commenced in Southern India, where Rámánuja about 1150 A.D. preached from city to city the unity of God under the title of Vishnu, the Cause and the Creator of all. The preacher made converts from every class, but it was reserved for his successors formally to enunciate equality of caste before God as an article of the Vishnuvite faith.

In 1174 A.D., King Anang Bhim Deo ascended the throne of Orissa. He ruled all the country from the Húglí river on the north to the Godávari on the south, and from the forests of Sonpur on the west, eastward to the Bay of Bengal. But in the midst of his prosperity he was struck down by a great calamity. He unhappily slew a Bráhman; and the rest of his life became one grand expiation of his guilt. Tradition relates that he bridged ten broad rivers, constructed 152 *gháts* or landing stages, and countless other public works. Among the temples that he built was the shrine of Jagannáth. Gold and jewels to the value of a million and a half measures of gold were set apart for the work, being estimated at half a million sterling in the money of our time. For fourteen years the artificers laboured, and the temple was finished, as it now stands, in 1198 A.D.

At the end of the 13th century, according to some authorities—at the end of the 14th, according to others—the great reformation took place, which made Vishnu-worship a national religion in India. Rámánand and Kabír (1380-1420 A.D.) were the first reformers. The moral code of the latter consists in humanity, truthfulness, retirement, and obedience to the spiritual guide. Kabír was followed by Chaitanya, the great prophet of Orissa, who was born in 1485, and miraculously (?) disappeared in 1527 A.D. According to his doctrine, no caste and no race was beyond the pale of salvation. At this moment, Chaitanya is the apostle of the common people, being generally adored in connection with Vishnu; and of such joint temples there are at present 800 in the Province. The death of this reformer marks the beginning of the spiritual decline of Vishnu-worship. As early as 1520, a teacher, Vallabha-Swámí, appeared in Northern India, preaching that God was not to be sought in nakedness, hunger, and solitude, but amid the enjoyments of this world. Vishnu was adored in his pastoral incarnation as Krishna, leading a glorious Arcadian life in the forest, and surrounded by everything that appeals to the sensuousness of a tropical race. His great annual ceremony is the Car Festival, hereafter to be described. In a religion of this sort, great abuses are inevitable. The most deplorable of its corruptions at the present day is that which has covered the temple walls with indecent sculptures, and filled their innermost sanctuaries with licentious rites. It is very difficult for a person not a Hindu to pronounce upon the real extent of this evil. None but a Hindu can enter any of the larger temples, and none but a Hindu priest really knows the truth about their inner mysteries. But between Vishnuvism and Love-worship there is but a step, and this step has been formally and publicly taken by a large sect of Vishnuvites.

The devotion of centuries has made Jagannáth a very wealthy god; but it is difficult to form anything like an accurate estimate of his present income. During the twenty-one years ending 1831, the pilgrim tax yielded a net total of £139,000, or £6619 a year, after deducting £5955 a year from the gross returns for the temple expenses and charges. It was felt, however, that the money thus received was to a certain extent the price of a State sanction to idolatry, and in 1840 the Government abolished the tax, and made over the entire management of the temple to the Rájás of Khurdhá. A moderate computation estimated the offerings to the priest at twice the gross sum which the British officers realized as pilgrim tax; and now that the tax is withdrawn and the pilgrims enter the city so much the richer, the oblations cannot fall much short of three times the amount. This would yield a yearly sum of £37,000, which, added to the £4000 derived from the temple lands, and to the revenues of the religious houses valued at £27,000,

makes the total income of Jagannáth not less than £68,000 per annum. It may be mentioned that Ranjít Sinh bequeathed the celebrated Koh-i-Núr diamond, now one of the Crown jewels of England, to Jagannáth. The immediate attendants on the god are divided into 36 orders and 97 classes, at the head of whom is the Rájá of Khurdhá, the representative of the ancient royal house of Orissa, who takes upon himself the lowly office of sweeper to Jagannáth. Decorators of the idol, priests of the wardrobe, cooks, dancing-girls, grooms, and artisans of every sort, follow. A special department keeps up the temple records, and affords a literary asylum to a few learned men.

The Temple.—The sacred enclosure is nearly in the form of a square, 652 feet long, and 630 broad. The interior is protected from profane eyes by a massive stone wall 20 feet high. Within rise about 120 temples, dedicated to the various forms in which the Hindu mind has imagined its god. But the great pagoda is the one dedicated to Jagannáth. Its conical tower rises like an elaborately carved sugar-loaf, 192 feet high, black with time, and surmounted by the mystic wheel and flag of Vishnu. Outside the principal entrance, or Lion Gate, in the square where the pilgrims chiefly throng, is an exquisite monolithic pillar which stood for centuries before the Temple of the Sun, twenty miles up the coast. The temple of Jagannáth consists of 4 chambers, communicating with each other, viz.—the Hall of Offerings; the Pillared Hall for the musicians and dancing-girls; the Hall of Audience; and, lastly, the Sanctuary itself, containing rude images of Jagannáth, his brother Balabhadra, and his sister Subhadrá. Jagannáth is represented without arms. The service of the temple consists partly in a daily round of oblations, and partly in sumptuous ceremonials at stated periods throughout the year. The offerings are bloodless; but, nevertheless, within the sacred enclosure is a shrine to Bimalá, the 'stainless' queen of the All-Destroyer, who is annually adored with bloody sacrifices. Twenty-four festivals are held, consisting chiefly of Vishnuvite commemorations, but freely admitting the ceremonials of other sects. At the Red Powder Festival, Vishnu and Siva enjoy equal honours; in the festival of the slaughter of the deadly cobra-de-capello (Kálí damana), the familiar of Siva and his queen, the supremacy of Vishnu is declared. But the Car Festival is the great event of the year. It takes place in June or July, and for weeks beforehand the whole District is in a ferment. The great car is 45 feet in height and 35 feet square, and is supported on 16 wheels of 7 feet diameter. The brother and sister of Jagannáth have separate cars a few feet smaller. When the sacred images are at length brought forth and placed upon their chariots, thousands fall on their knees and bow their foreheads in the dust. The vast multitude shouts with one throat, and, surging backwards and forwards, drags the wheeled edifices down the broad streets

towards the country-house of lord Jagannáth. Music strikes up before and behind, drums beat, cymbals clash, the priests harangue from the cars, or shout a sort of fescennine medley enlivened with broad allusions and coarse gestures, which are received with roars of laughter by the crowd. The distance from the temple to the country-house is less than a mile; but the wheels sink deep into the sand, and the journey takes several days. After hours of severe toil and wild excitement in the tropical sun, a reaction necessarily follows. The zeal of the pilgrims flags before the garden-house is reached; and the cars, deserted by the devotees, are dragged along by the professional pullers with deep-drawn grunts and groans. These men, 4200 in number, are peasants from the neighbouring fiscal divisions, who generally manage to live at free quarters in Purí during the festival. Once arrived at the country-house, the enthusiasm subsides. The pilgrims drop exhausted upon the burning sand of the sacred street, or block up the lanes with their prostrate bodies. When they have slept off their excitement, they rise refreshed and ready for another of the strong religious stimulants of the season. Lord Jagannáth is left to get back to his temple as best he can, and but for the professional car-pullers, would inevitably be left at his country-house.

In a closely-packed, eager throng of a hundred thousand men and women, many of them unaccustomed to exposure or labour, and all of them tugging and straining at the cars to the utmost under a blazing sun, deaths must occasionally occur. There have, doubtless, been instances of pilgrims throwing themselves under the wheels in a frenzy of religious excitement; but such instances have always been rare, and are now almost unknown. At one time, several people were killed or injured every year, but these were almost invariably the result of accidental trampling. The few cases of suicide that did occur were for the most part those of diseased and miserable objects, who took this means to put themselves out of pain. The official returns place this beyond doubt. Nothing, indeed, could be more opposed to the spirit of Vishnu-worship than self-immolation. Accidental death within the temple renders the whole place unclean. The copious literature of the sect of Chaitanya makes no allusion to self-sacrifice, and contains no passage that could be twisted into a sanction for it.

The temple of Jagannáth, that *colluvio religionum*, in which every creed obtained an asylum, and in which every sect can find its god, now closes its gates against the low-caste population. Speaking generally, only those are excluded who retain the flesh-eating and animal-life-destroying propensities of the aboriginal tribes; wine-sellers, sweepers, skinners, corpse-bearers, are also shut out.

Day and night throughout every month of the year, troops of

devotees arrive at Purí; and for 300 miles along the great Orissa road, every village has its pilgrim encampment. The pilgrims to the shrine of Jagannáth are a motley assemblage, at least five-sixths of whom are women. Ninety-five out of a hundred come on foot. Mixed with the throng are devotees of various sorts,—some covered with ashes; some almost naked; some with matted, yellow-stained hair; almost all with their foreheads streaked with red or white, a string of beads round their necks, and a stout staff in their hands. But the greatest spectacle is a north-country Rájá, with his caravan of elephants, camels, led horses, and swordsmen, followed by all the indescribable confusion of Indian royalty. The vast spiritual army that thus marches its hundreds, and sometimes its thousands, of miles, along burning roads, across unbridged rivers, and through pestilent regions of jungle and swamp, is annually recruited with as much tact and regularity as is bestowed on any military force. Attached to the temple is a body of emissaries, called pilgrim guides, numbering about 3000 men, who wander from village to village within their allotted beats, preaching pilgrimage as the liberation from sin. A good part of the distance can now be accomplished by rail, but the northern pilgrims walk, as a rule, from 300 to 600 miles, although recently a steamboat service between Calcutta and Orissa is attracting a steadily increasing number of pilgrims. The guide tries to keep up the spirits of the wayfarers, and once within sight of the holy city, the pains and miseries of the journey are forgotten. The dirty bundles of rags now yield their inner treasures of spotless cotton, and the pilgrims, refreshed and robed in clean garments, proceed to the temple. As they pass the Lion Gate, a man of the sweeper caste strikes them with his broom to purify them of their sins, and forces them to promise, on pain of losing all the benefits of pilgrimage, not to disclose the events of the journey or the secrets of the shrine. In a few days the excitement subsides. At first nothing can exceed the liberality of the pilgrims to their spiritual guides; but thoughts of their return journey soon enter their minds, and the last few days of their stay are spent in scheming a speedy departure, with as few more payments as possible. Every day the pilgrims bathe in one of the sacred lakes, and at the principal one 5000 bathers may be seen at once. At the great festival as many as 40,000 rush together into the surf at the 'Gate of Heaven,' a tract extending about a quarter of a mile along the coast. No trustworthy statistics exist as to the number of pilgrims who visit Jagannáth. But a native gentleman, who has spent his life on the spot, has published as his opinion that the number never falls short of 50,000 a year, and sometimes amounts to 300,000. At the Car Festival, food is cooked in the temple kitchen for 90,000 devotees; at another festival for 70,000. The old registers, during the period when the pilgrim tax was levied,

notoriously fell below the truth; yet in five out of the ten years between 1820 and 1829, the official return amounted to between one and two hundred thousand. The pilgrims from the south are a mere handful compared with those who come from Bengal and Northern India, yet it has been ascertained that 65,000 find their way to Purí, across the Chilká Lake, in two months alone. As many as 9613 were actually counted by the police leaving Purí on a single day, and 19,209 during the last six days in June. The records of the missionaries in Orissa estimate the number of the pilgrims present at the Car Festival alone, in some years, as high as 145,000.

Pilgrim Mortality.—The predisposing causes to disease among the pilgrims are bad food, the unhealthiness of Purí town, and the crowding together in the lodging-houses. The priests impress upon the pilgrims the impropriety of dressing food within the holy city, and the temple kitchen thus secures the monopoly of cooking for the multitude. The food consists chiefly of boiled rice, which is considered too sacred for the least fragment to be thrown away. Consequently, it is consumed by some one or other, whatever its state of putrefaction, to the very last morsel. As a rule, the houses in Purí consist of two or three cells communicating with each other, without windows or ventilation of any kind. The city contains 6363 houses, and a resident population, in 1872, of 22,695.

'I was shown one apartment,' says Dr. Mouat, late Inspector-General of Jails, 'in the best pilgrim hotel of the place, in which 80 persons were said to have passed the night. It was 13 feet long, 10 feet 5 inches broad, with side walls 6½ feet in height, and a low pent roof over it. It had but one entrance, and no escape for the effete air. If this be the normal state of the best lodging-house in the broad main street of Purí, it is not difficult to imagine the condition of the worst, in the narrow, confined, undrained back-slums of the town.' About the time of the Car Festival, there can be little doubt that as many as 90,000 people were often packed for weeks together in the 5000 lodging-houses of Purí. At certain seasons of the year, the misery is mitigated by sleeping out of doors, but the Car Festival unfortunately happens at the beginning of the rains. Cholera invariably broke out during this time.

But it is on the return journey that the wretchedness of the pilgrims reaches its climax; and it is impossible to compute, with anything like accuracy, the numbers that then perish. After the Car Festival, they find every stream flooded; and even those who can pay have often to sit for days in the rain on the bank, before a boat will venture on the ungovernable torrent. Hundreds die upon the roadside. The missionaries along the line of march have ascertained that pilgrims sometimes travel 40 miles a day, until at last they drop from

sheer fatigue. They are most happy whom insensibility overtakes in some English station, for they are then taken into hospital. Personal inquiries among the pilgrims led to the conclusion that, up to 1870, the deaths in the city and by the way seldom fell below one-eighth, and often amount to one-fifth, of each company; and the Sanitary Commissioner for Bengal accepted this estimate. It is impossible to reckon the total number of the poorer sort who travel on foot at less than 84,000. It is equally impossible to reckon their deaths in Purí and on the road at less than one-seventh, or 12,000 a year. Deducting 2000 for the ordinary death-rate, we have a net slaughter of 10,000 per annum.

It may well be supposed that the British Government has not looked unmoved on this appalling spectacle, to which nothing but a total prohibition of pilgrimage could put a stop. But such a prohibition would amount to an interdict on one of the most cherished religious privileges, and would be regarded by every Hindu throughout India as a great national wrong. The subject has come up from time to time for official discussion; and in 1867, circular letters were sent to every Division of Bengal. The pilgrims' lodging-houses in Purí were placed under special Acts; a system of sanitary surveillance and quarantine was introduced; and pilgrims' hospitals were established along the great line of road. These efforts to reduce the loss of life to a minimum have been described in a previous section of this article.

Purla Kimidi.—Ancient *zamíndárí* and town in Ganjám District, Madras.—*See* PARLA KIMEDI.

Púrna (the ancient *Payoshni*).—River of Berar, having its source in the Sátpura range, lat. 21° N., long. 76° 14′ E. It flows through Akola District from east to west, almost equidistant from the ranges of hills which bound the valley north and south. It is not navigable by boats. The banks, though soft, seem to a great extent to have resisted erosion by the water, but there are exceptions; some villages on the south bank, notably Wagoli, have had to move southwards, gradually losing their ground to the north. The Púrna has many tributary streams, of which the chief are the Káta Púrna, the Múrna, the Núm, the Bordi, the Sháhnúr, the Idrúpa, and the Wán. Towards the end of its course, in Berar, the Púrna for a space bounds the Districts of Akola and Buldána, and, passing beyond the latter into Khandesh, joins the Tápti about 20 miles below Burhánpur.

Purnábhábá.—River of Bengal; rises in the Bráhmanpukur Marsh in the District of Dinájpur, and flows southwards for about 72 miles, until it enters Maldah District. Here it takes a south-westerly direction, passing through the dense *kátál* jungle occupying the eastern portion of this District, and joins the Mahánandá in lat. 24° 50′ N., and long. 88° 21′ E., about a mile below the busy grain mart of Rohanpur. The

chief tributaries of the Purnábhábá in Dinájpur are the Dhápá, Nartá, Siáldángá, Ghágrá, Hánchá-Katákhál, and Harbhángá, on the east or left bank; and the Miná on the west or right bank. Its bed is sandy, and the banks sloping or abrupt, according as the current sets from one side of the river to the other; generally speaking, they are jungly and uncultivated. The river is navigable throughout its course by large boats in the rains, and by small boats during the whole dry season. During the rainy months, the basin of the Purnábhábá is entirely filled by the flood of waters which come down from the high land of the *kátál*, rising above the river banks; and at that season it may be said to expand into one vast *bíl* or lake.

Purngad.—Port in Ratnágiri District, Bombay. Lat. 16° 48′ N., long. 73° 20′ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—imports, £6336, and exports, £5319.

Purniah.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 25° 15′ and 26° 35′ N. lat., and between 87° 1′ and 88° 33′ E. long. Area, 4957 square miles; pop. (according to the Census of 1872), 1,714,795. It is bounded on the north by the State of Nepál and Dárjíling District; on the east by the Districts of Jalpáigurí, Dinájpur, and Maldah; on the south by the river Ganges, which separates it from the Districts of Bhágalpur and the Santál Parganás; and on the west by Bhágalpur.

Physical Aspects.—The greater part of the District is composed of a rich loamy soil of alluvial formation. It is intersected by rivers and small water-courses; and large marshes also exist, which do not completely dry up at any period of the year. Rice is the general staple of cultivation, but towards the north, jute and tobacco occupy a considerable area. In the west of the District, however, the physical features of the country are different. The soil is here thickly overlaid with sand deposited by the river Kusí in the course of its westward movements, and is but little cultivated. This tract spreads from the vicinity of the town of Purniah chiefly to the north and west, and occasionally opens into fine grassy prairies, affording pasturage for cattle. Along the banks of the Kusí, there is a dense and high jungle of coarse grass; and wild animals, especially the tiger, find shelter in the coverts. The Kusí is a large river rising among the Nepál Mountains, remarkable for the rapidity of its current and the dangerous and uncertain nature of its bed. It forces itself with a constant westerly movement, so that the present bed of the river is many miles distant from the channel shown on old maps. Among other rivers of the District is the Mahánandá, which rises in the mountains of Sikkim, and flows through the east of Purniah into Maldah District. Both these rivers are navigable for native boats all the year round.

History.—Purniah fell into the hands of the Muhammadan con-

querors in the 13th century; but it was not, apparently, until the 17th century that it became the valuable prize which it was afterwards considered. Under the administration of Sáif Khán, and afterwards of Sayyid Ahmad, who died in 1756, the power of the Purniah governorship was consolidated. A considerable army was equipped, and the frontier was extended in many directions. Sayyid Ahmad was succeeded by Shaukat Jang, whose character is represented to have been as bad as that of his notorious cousin Siráj-ud-daulá, the Nawáb of Bengal. Both young men, by their perverse conduct, gave offence to all the old servants and officers of their fathers, and alienated the affections of the people. The chief among the disgraced adherents of the Nawáb, Mír Jafar Khán, a name subsequently notorious in British history, betook himself to the court of the Purniah governor, and there describing the weakness of his own master, urged Shaukat Jang to advance an army towards Murshidábád. This advice coincided with the natural impulses of Shaukat Jang. War was declared, and Siráj-ud-daulá, who had just returned from Calcutta after the tragedy of the Black Hole, proceeded into Purniah to anticipate the attack. A sanguinary battle was fought near Nawábganj and lost by Shaukat Jang, mainly in consequence of his own gross indolence and incapacity. He was himself killed, and the victorious army entered Purniah two days later. Temporary governors were then appointed; but the country remained in a state of anarchy until the last governor was superseded, in 1770, by an English official, with the title of Superintendent. The present jurisdiction of the District has been established gradually, after large portions have been parcelled away to create the District of Maldah, and, more recently, to consolidate Bhágalpur upon the western frontier. Purniah District is now divided into two Subdivisions, besides the headquarters Subdivision, *viz.* Arariya in the north-west, and Krishnaganj in the north-east.

Population.—In the beginning of this century, Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton estimated that the population of the District was 2,904,380; but this seems to be an excessive estimate, even after making allowance for the greater extent of the Purniah jurisdiction at that time. There are no grounds for supposing that the population has decreased. According to the Census of 1872, which was very carefully effected, the total population was 1,714,795, giving an average of 346 to the square mile. The number of villages is 4179; of houses, 313,447; the average number of persons to a village being 410, and of persons to a house, 5·5. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years of age—males, 327,751; females, 255,155: above 12 years—males, 548,569; females, 583,320. The population is most dense in the rich alluvial plain to the west of the District, watered by the Mahánandá and its affluents, where the proportion is 449 to the

square mile. The east and central police circles also show a denser population than the average of the District. The number diminishes to the south and west along the banks of the Ganges and Kusí, in consequence of the devastating overflow of these rivers. Along the Kusí, the population grows more and more sparse from north to south, until in the police circle of Damdahá it falls to only 199 to the square mile. The course of the Mahánandá river marks a distinct ethnical division of the people. To the west, there is a large Aryan element, whose characteristics of language and physique predominate over the more numerous non-Aryan people among whom they are diffused. Eastwards, the mass of the people are aborigines, being an outlying portion of the Koch or Kirántí race. The higher castes of Bráhmans, Rájputs, etc., are not very numerous. The Goálás, or herdsmen caste, are 128,608 in number. Whole villages of Goálás are found on the sandy plains formed by the Kusí, in the west of the District. The great bulk of the people are Hindus, who amount to 1,022,009, or 59·6 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans number 690,149. The people lead a purely rural life, and there are only 3 municipal towns—PURNIAH, KRISHNAGANJ, and RANIGANJ—containing an aggregate population of 30,691 persons. KARAGOLA, important as the site of a large fair, and the railway terminus, is separately given.

Agriculture.—Rice is the most important crop in Purniah. Although the area under rice is less than in Bengal Proper, it is considerably larger than in the more western parts of Behar. Next to rice, tobacco and jute are the most important products of the District. The best tobacco is grown along the high strips of country extending from the town of Purniah in a north and somewhat westerly direction. The soil farther to the east, which is richer and moister, is not so well adapted for the cultivation of this crop. Jute is grown over the north of the District. Irrigation is not usually resorted to in any part of Purniah. The total cultivated area of the District has been estimated at 2,315,910 acres; the uncultivated area capable of cultivation at 285,440 acres, and the uncultivable waste at 571,029 acres. Seventy-five acres would be considered a very large holding, and 8 acres, or under, a very small one. Twenty acres may be put down as a fair-sized comfortable holding. Eight acres is as much as a single pair of ordinary bullocks can keep in cultivation.

There are but few intermediate permanent rights between the landlord and the cultivator. Estates are generally let in short leases to farmers, who try to make as much as they can during their term. The number of permanent under-tenures of all kinds is, according to the road cess returns, only 1031, as against 2378 farming leases. Indebtedness among the cultivators is common.

The Collector estimates that tenants with occupancy rights do not form more than a quarter of the peasantry of the District, while those holding at rents protected from enhancement under Act VIII. of 1869 scarcely amount to one-sixteenth. The great mass of the cultivators are mere tenants-at-will. The rates of rent are generally low as compared with other Districts, ranging from a nominal rate of 6d. to 8s. per acre. Besides the system of rents founded on the nature and richness of the soil, there is another, current in the south-west of the District, called *hál-hasli*, under which rent is assessed according to the crops grown on the land. An interesting letter from the Collector of Purniah to the Board of Revenue in 1788, estimates the average earnings of the labouring classes at 1 rupee, or 2s., a month. In 1842, wages were from 3s. to 4s. a month. At the present day, agricultural labourers are paid 7s., but the labourers who come to the District for the season from Chutiá Nágpur usually demand 8s. a month. Skilled labour, when employed by the natives, is generally paid in kind. Blacksmiths can earn about 24s. a month; carpenters, from 12s. to 14s.; bricklayers from 8s. to 10s. The prices of food have increased in the same proportion as the wages of labour. In 1794, the price of rice was about 1s. 4d. per cwt.; at the present time, it is about 4s. 10d. for the same quantity.

Natural Calamities.—Purniah District is very liable to floods, which cause much damage; but on such occasions it is usual for the high lands to yield abundantly, thus tending to compensate for the crops destroyed by the inundation. Drought is, as elsewhere in Bengal, a more serious calamity than flood. The great famine of 1770, which was attended with a terrible mortality in Purniah, was occasioned by the failure of nearly all the crops of the year, but particularly of the late rice, in consequence of long-continued drought. In a report to the Directors of the East India Company, it was stated that 'the famine which has ensued, the mortality, the beggary, exceed all description. Above one-third of the inhabitants have perished in the once plentiful Province of Purniah.' In 1788, the rainfall was again deficient, but no serious results followed, and there is no record of any other failure of the crops till 1866. Even on that occasion, the local pressure was caused, not so much by deficiency in the produce, as by the drain on the District for the troops, which had been constantly passing to and fro in connection with the war in Bhután during the two previous years. In 1874, the crops again partially failed, but the necessary precautions were taken, and famine was effectually averted from the District.

Manufactures, Commerce, etc.—Indigo is the most important manufacture in Purniah District. In an average year, the out-turn of indigo is estimated at 5000 to 7000 *maunds* (about 225 tons) of dye; area

of land under indigo, 60,000 to 70,000 acres. The annual expenditure by the various factories is returned at £100,000; but there are no figures showing how much capital is invested in buildings, machinery, and land. There are 34 factories in the District, with 31 subsidiary works; of which only 3 are owned and managed by natives. The cultivation is based more on the principle of free trade than in Lower Bengal or the neighbouring Behar Districts. The cultivators sell their indigo at the vats, where it is measured, and a fair value given for the plant. *Bidri*, a manufacture of this District, is made from a mixture of pewter and brass, inlaid with silver; and is chiefly used for hookah-stands, plates, jugs, etc.

Administration.—The revenue of the District of Purniah, according to the records in the Collector's office, amounted in 1792 to £126,049; in 1850-51 to £157,690; and in 1870-71 to £179,449. The net expenditure in 1792 was £27,204; in 1850-51, £24,258; and in 1870-71, £37,831. The increased revenue in the past twenty years is noteworthy, as since 1850 large transfers have been made from Purniah to Maldah and to Bhágalpur, involving a loss in land revenue to Purniah of £20,000. This loss, however, was met by a threefold increase in excise receipts, a much larger sale of stamps, and the imposition of an income tax. The additional expenditure was generally distributed through all departments of local administration. In 1874-75, there were 1629 estates in the District, and the total land revenue realized was £117,532. The gradual steps by which the land revenue of Purniah was assessed are interesting, and have been given at considerable length from the original records, in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xv. p. 389 *et seq.* Protection to person and property has steadily improved. In the year 1800, there were 3 magisterial courts, 2 civil and 2 revenue courts; in 1869, there were 8 magisterial, and 13 civil and revenue courts. For executive purposes, the District is divided into 13 police circles. In 1875, there were 2 superior European officers, 84 subordinate officers, and 398 constables in the regular police, maintained at a total charge of £10,990. The municipal police consisted of 6 officers and 120 constables, maintained at a cost of £878. The village watch consisted of 6798 rural policemen, maintained entirely by contributions from the people at a total estimated cost of £24,472. The whole police force of the District amounted, therefore, to 7408 officers, rank and file, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 231 of the population. The total police charges were £36,340, showing an incidence of about 5d. per head of the population. The average number of prisoners in jail during 1872 was 304, and the death-rate amounted to 6·58 per cent. of the total jail population. Education of all kinds, and especially primary education, has been widely diffused in Purniah District during the past few years. This progress is due to

the policy of Sir George Campbell, in recognising the existing village schools of the country, improving them by Government grants, and incorporating them into the State system of public instruction. The number of Government and aided schools increased from 1 in 1856-57 to 12 in 1870-71, and 347 in 1874-75. The total number of pupils increased from 66 in 1856-57 to 288 in 1870-71, and to 8744 in 1874-75. In the latter year there were also 183 private and unaided schools, subject to Government inspection. There are 3 municipalities in the District—Purniah town, with a municipal income in 1876-77 of £1561, showing an incidence of taxation of 1s. 9¾d. per head; Krishnaganj (Kishengunge), where the municipal income was £382, incidence of taxation 9¼d. per head; and Rániganj, taxation £106, at the rate of 4d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Purniah District is of an intermediate character between that of Behar and Central Bengal. The rainfall averages 65 inches in the year, which is far above the rate of Tirhut or North Bhágalpur, but not so heavy as in such Districts as Dinájpur, Rangpur, or Bográ. Purniah is the most eastern District that distinctly feels the hot and dry west winds so prevalent in Behar and Upper India. The temperature during May rises to 105° or 107° F. in the shade. The most unhealthy season of the year is towards the close of October, when the rains cease, and the flooded lands begin to dry up, filling the air with malarial exhalations from decaying vegetation. At this season the native population suffers greatly from fever. The District is in consequence generally considered unhealthy by the people of Bengal.

Purniah.—Headquarters Subdivision of Purniah District, Bengal, lying between 25° 21′ 30″ and 26° 8′ N. lat., and between 87° 1′ and 87° 55′ 30″ E. long. Area, 2572 square miles; villages, 2634; houses, 157,773. Pop. (1872), 773,310, of whom 536,243, or 69·3 per cent., were Hindus; 235,603, or 30·5 per cent., Muhammadans; 354 Christians; and 1110, or 0·2 per cent., of other denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 50·3 per cent.; average density of population, 301 per square mile; average number of villages, 1·02; persons per village, 294; houses per square mile, 61; inmates per house, 4·9. This Subdivision comprises the 7 police circles of Purniah, Damdahá, Gondwárá, Manihárí, Kadbá, Balrámpur, and Amúr-Kásbá. In 1870-71, it contained 5 magisterial and revenue courts; the regular police numbered 333 men, and the rural watch 3236; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £29,072, 8s.

Purniah.—Chief town, municipality, and administrative headquarters of Purniah District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Saurá river, in lat. 25° 46′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 30′ 44″ E. Pop. (1872), 16,057. The old civil station of Rámbágh, formerly a western suburb, now lies

within the centre of the town. The population has decreased considerably in the last half-century, owing to the unhealthiness of the climate, consequent on the silting up of the river Kálí Kusí, when it formed the bed of the Great Kusí. As that river worked westward, it gave place to a chain of marshes connected by low strips of land, which were flooded in the rains, and formed at that season of the year a continuous water communication. At the time of the English occupation (about 1771), this change seems to have been not yet complete; the main body of water had been diverted, but enough still remained in the Kálí Kusí to keep the swamps deep, and very little of the bed was left dry for any considerable part of the year. About 1820, the station became one of the most unhealthy in Bengal; and the old graveyard shows how great must have been the mortality among the European residents during the second quarter of this century. About 1835, the Government offices were removed to higher ground, 2 miles west of the military lines of Purniah. After this change, there was an appreciable improvement in the health of the officials and other residents; but the town still retained its unpopularity. The native quarter is even now subject to outbreaks of fever, passing into severe epidemics; and it is believed that in unhealthy years no less than 90 per cent. of the native population suffer from this disease. The municipal revenue (1876-77) amounted to £1561; rate of taxation, 1s. 9¾d. per head of population. Purniah has a considerable trade in jute.

Purúliá.—Headquarters Subdivision of Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 5′ 0″ to 23° 29′ 0″ N., long. 86° 6′ 0″ to 86° 50′ 0″ E. Area, 4132 square miles; villages, 5148; houses, 167,072. Pop. (1872), 840,828, of whom 708,164, or 84·2 per cent., were Hindus; 22,780, or 2·7 per cent., Muhammadans; 561, or 0·1 per cent., Christians; and 109,323, or 13 per cent., of other denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 50·3 per cent.; average density of population, 203 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 1·25; persons per village, 163; houses per square mile, 40; inmates per house, 5. This Subdivision contains the 7 police circles of Barábhúm, Chás, Gaurándigh, Purúliá, Ráipur, Raghunáthpur, and Supúr. In 1870-71, it contained 14 magisterial courts, a general police force of 248 men, and a village watch of 3425; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £19,082, 18s.

Purúliá.—Administrative headquarters of Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 19′ 38″ N., long. 86° 24′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 5695. The town contains a Deputy Commissioner's office, court-house, jail, police station, dispensary, church, etc.; the *bázár* supplies the District generally with cotton, salt, and other imported goods. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £457; rate of taxation, 1s. 5¼d. per head of population.

Purushottapur (*Purushottamapuram*, 'City of Purushottama,' or *Jagannáth*).—Town in Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 31′ 15″ N., long. 84° 57′ E.; pop. (1871), 2900, living in 757 houses. Chiefly notable for the Pillar of Jongodo (4 miles to the north), bearing an Edict of Asoka (dating probably about 244 B.C.), similar to that at Dhauli in Cuttack. Station of a Sub-magistrate, post office, etc.

Purwá.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Unao District, Oudh; situated between 26° 8′ and 26° 40′ N. lat., and between 80° 37′ and 81° 5′ 30″ E. long. Bounded on the north by Rasulábád and Lucknow *tahsíls*, on the east by Mohanlálganj and Mahárájganj, on the south by Lálganj *tahsíl* and Fatehpur District, and on the west by Unao *tahsíl*. Area, 547 square miles, of which 270 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 301,267, viz. 288,466 Hindus and 12,801 Musalmáns; average density of population, 550 per square mile; number of villages and townships (*mauzás*), 565. This *tahsíl* comprises the 10 *parganás* of Purwá, Mauránwán, Asoha, Magráyar, Panhán, Pátan, Bihár, Bhagwantnagar, Ghátampur, and Daundia Khera.

Purwá.—*Parganá* of Unao District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Govinda Parsandan; on the east by Mauránwán; on the south by Panhán, Patan, and Magráyar; and on the west by Harha. Area, 111 square miles, of which 54 are cultivated. The soil is chiefly loam and clay; and the principal crops—wheat, barley, and sugar-cane. The Lon river runs through the *parganá*, but is dry in the hot weather. Pop. (1869), 64,858, viz. 60,934 Hindus and 3924 Musalmáns. Government land revenue, £8436, or an average of 2s. 4½d. per acre. The area under the different tenures is as follows:—*Tálukdárí*, 15,980 acres; *zamíndárí*, 39,640 acres; *pattidárí*, 15,411.

Purwá.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, and headquarters of Purwá *tahsíl* and *parganá;* situated 20 miles south-east of Unao town. Lat. 26° 27′ 20″ N., long. 80° 48′ 55″ E.; pop. (1869), 10,880, viz. 8355 Hindus and 2525 Muhammadans. Purwá was formerly the headquarters of the District; but soon after annexation the seat of administration was moved to Unao. Four lines of unmetalled road lead from Purwá—one between Unao and Rái Bareli, a second from Purwá to Cawnpore, a third from Purwá to Lucknow, and a fourth from Purwá to Bihár, Baksár, and Rái Bareli. The town is noted for its shoes and leather-work. Two markets are held weekly; and there are three annual fairs, the sales at which amount to about £3100. Besides the usual Subdivisional courts, Purwá contains a police station, and a school attended by upwards of 100 boys.

Pús.—River of Berar; rises at the village of Káta, just north of Básim town, in lat. 20° 9′ N., long. 77° 12′ E.; and, after a course of 64 miles, first south-east and then north-east, empties itself into the Pengangá at Sangam (lat. 19° 51′ N., long. 76° 47′ E.). The valleys

drained by the river, and by the Káta Púrna, which rises close to it, are generally narrow and confined. The soil is good, and fairly cultivated.

Púsá.—Government estate in Darbhangah District, Bengal. Area, 4528 acres, made up of two villages—Málinagar, situated to the north of the Little Gandak; and Bakhtiárpur, on the south bank of that river. The records in the Tirhut Collectorate show that the latter village was acquired by Government in 1796, on *mukarrári* lease from the Máliks or head-men of Lodípur Púsá, Chandmarí, and Despur, who bound themselves and their heirs to give up all interest in the lands, except the right to the first year's rental. In 1798, other waste lands appertaining to Bakhtiárpur were assigned to Government without any additional rent. The estate was long used as a stud depôt, but all stud operations were closed in 1872; and in 1875, a model farm was established, the soil being of the first quality, the situation good, water-carriage and large markets being within easy reach. The most important experiment is that of investigating whether the *garpá dhán* of Dacca can be made to grow in high lands in Tirhut as it does in Bengal. Another project is to teach the Tirhut *rayats*, who take great interest in these experiments, to grow and prepare safflower-dye according to the Bengal method. The grounds at Púsá have been very well laid out. There is a great deal of valuable timber scattered over the estate. The total receipts from the model farm in 1873-74 amounted to £527. Still more recently, the cultivation and manufacture of tobacco have been undertaken at Púsá, in connection with the State model farm at Gházípur in the North-Western Provinces. A professional curer of the leaf has been obtained from America. In 1877-78, a crop of 150,000 lbs. of tobacco was raised from 200 acres. Of this, 15,000 lbs. was sent to England, and there sold at prices ranging from 2½d. to 5½d. per lb.

Púsad.—Chief town of the *parganá* of the same name, in Básim District, Berar; situated in lat. 19° 54′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 36′ 30″ E., about 25 miles south-east of Básim town, on the Pús river, from which it takes its name. Pop. (1867), 3497. Though now decayed, it is still the headquarters of a *tahsíldár*, and has been the residence of the revenue officials for more than 150 years. There are two old Hemár Panti temples, and the ruins of some others; also a fine tank for irrigation, which has now silted up owing to a defect in the original construction. Púsad has a few well-to-do shopkeepers and dealers in country produce, and its weekly market is well attended. Middle-class school, police station, and post office.

Pusesávli.—Municipal town in Sátára District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 26′ N., and long. 74° 24′ E., 27 miles south-east of Sátára town. Pop. (1872), 2456; municipal revenue, £122. Dispensary.

Pushkara.—Town, lake, and place of pilgrimage in Ajmere-Mhairwára District, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 30′ N., long. 74° 40′ E. (Thornton). Brahma here performed the sacrifice known as *yajna*, whereby the lake of Pushkara became so holy that the greatest sinner by bathing in it earns the delights of Paradise. The town contains five principal temples, dedicated respectively to Brahma, Sávitri, Badri Náráyana, Varáha, and Siva Atmateswara, all of modern construction, as the earlier buildings suffered severely under Aurangzeb. Bathing *ghâts* line the lake, and most of the princely families of Rájputána have houses round the margin. No living thing may be put to death within the limits of the town. Great fair in October and November, attended by about 100,000 pilgrims, who bathe in the sacred lake. Large trade at that time in horses, camels, bullocks, and miscellaneous merchandise. Permanent population about 3750, chiefly Bráhmans.

Pushpa-giri.—Highest peak of the Subrahmanya range of mountains, a spur of the Western Gháts, in the territory of Coorg, bounding the tableland of Merkárá on the west. Lat. 12° 40′ N., long. 75° 44′ E.; 5626 feet above the sea. The ascent is difficult, but can be managed on foot in about three hours. On the lower slopes there is a dense jungle, haunted by wild elephants; on the summit are many ancient memorials in the shape of stone mounds. The view is very extensive.

Putera.—Estate in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces.—*See* PITIHRA.

Putúr.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 12° 45′ 45″ N., long. 75° 14′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 2312, inhabiting 466 houses. Putúr was formerly an outpost on the Coorg frontier, and troops were stationed here till 1859. It was the scene of a rebellious outbreak in 1837.

Putúr.—Town in Madura District, Madras. Lat. 10° 8′ 30″ N., long. 78° 20′ E.; pop. (1871), 8169, inhabiting 1142 houses.

Pú-zwon-doung (*Poo-zwon-doung*).—River in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; rises in the Pegu Yoma range, in about lat. 17° 8′ N., and, after a southerly course of 53 miles, falls into the HLAING just below Rangoon town. It is about 440 yards wide at its mouth; but the river is now silting up, owing to the vast quantities of rice-husk discharged from the mills on its banks. The upper part of the Pú-zwon-doung valley produces valuable timber, and the lower part, large crops of rice.

Pwai-tha.—Revenue circle in the Tarúp-maw township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Towards the west, where the country borders on the Eng-daing, or belt of *eng* forest, the ground is undulating. Pop. (1877), 2510; gross revenue, £462.

Pya-ma-law.—One of the mouths of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), the chief river of British Burma. At the town of Shwe-loung, situated in

lat. 16° 44′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 23′ 30″ E., it leaves the Pan-ta-naw river, and runs for about 6 miles to the north-north-east. Then it turns west and south-south-west, and, after a course of 90 miles, falls into the sea in about lat. 15° 50′ N., and long. 94° 48′ E., having, 15 miles above, given off a large branch eastward called the Pyeng-tha-lú. The Pya-ma-law is connected with the Irawadi by numerous inter-communicating creeks, and is navigable throughout its whole course by river steamers; its mouth is 4 miles wide.

Pya-pún (*Pya-poon*).—Township in Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Bounded east by Rangoon District, south by the Bay of Bengal, and west by Bassein. A level tract, intersected in its lower portions by numerous inter-communicating tidal creeks; subject to inundation. Chief product, rice. The township comprises 8 revenue circles. Pop. (1877), 44,207; gross revenue, £26,322.

Pya-pún (*Pya-poon*).—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The northern and western portions of the country are covered with tree and cane forest; the eastern tract consists of a large plain. The lands bordering the streams are subject to inundation during the rains. Pop. (1877), 7220; gross revenue, £2885.

Pya-pún (*Pya-poon*).—Chief village of the township of the same name in Thún-khwa District, British Burma; situated in lat. 16° 16′ N., and long. 95° 40′ E. Pop. between 1500 and 2000, engaged chiefly in sea-fishing.

Pya-pún (*Pya-poon*).—Tidal creek in Thún-kwa District, forming one of the numerous mouths of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). It branches off southwards from the To or China Bakir near Kwon-ta, and has a depth of 12 feet at low-water almost throughout its whole length. Its banks are somewhat steep and muddy, and are fringed with forest.

Pyaw-bhway.—Revenue circle in the An-gyí township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. To the north and east there is some tree forest, but the rest of the circle is open waste, or under rice, for which the soil is well adapted. Pop. (1877), 7990; revenue, £4475.

Pyaw-bhway.—Village in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 16° 40′ N., and long. 96° 13′ E., on both banks of the tidal creek Ka-ma-oung, which is spanned by several good bridges. Contains numerous pagodas and small *zayats* or rest-house. Pop. (1877), 3766.

Pyeng-bhú (*Pyeng-bhoo*).—Revenue circle in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3583; gross revenue, £471.

Pyeng-da-ray.—Revenue circle in the Pya-pún township of Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 3579, largely engaged in fishing; gross revenue, £3152.

Pyeng-ma-beng-hla.—Revenue circle in the Re-gyí township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 33 square miles; pop. (1877), 2365; gross revenue, £1052.

Pyeng-ma-na.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It extends from the Arakan Mountains eastward nearly to the Irawadi. The hills are densely wooded; teak, *pyeng-gado*, *htouk-kyan*, and *sha* are abundant. Near the Arakan range, cultivation is carried on entirely by the *toungya* or nomadic system. Chief stream, the Tha-le-dan. Pop. (1877), 3806; gross revenue, £703.

Pykára.—River in the Nílgiri District, Madras.—*See* NILGIRI.

Pyún-wa (*Pyoon-wa*).—Tidal creek at the entrance to the Bassein river, Pegu Division, British Burma. It leaves the Thek-ngay-thaing mouth at Ouk-kywon-rwa, where its breadth is 300 yards, and rejoins it 13 miles higher up at Pyún-wa-rwa, where the stream is only 50 yards wide. Total length, 16 miles; minimum depth, 25 feet.

Q

Quetta.—Fortified town in Khelát State, Baluchistán. Lat. 30° 12′ N., long. 66° 55′ E. The following account is quoted from Mr. A. W. Hughes' *Baluchistán* (1877):—'The town of Shál, so called by the Brahuis, or Quetta (Kwatta), as designated by the Afgháns,—meaning the fort, or *kot*,—is situate at the northern end of the valley of the same name, on the direct route from Jacobábád and Shikárpur to Kandahár, *viâ* the Bolán Pass, being at the same time very conveniently placed as regards Khelát (Kalát) (from which it is distant 103 miles north) and other Baluch towns. The town is surrounded by a mud wall, and has two gates, the eastern and southern, the latter being known as the Shikárpuri gate. In the centre of the town, on an artificial mound, stands the *miri*, or fort, in which the governor of the place resides, and from which there is a very extensive view of the neighbouring valley. This fort, it would seem, possesses but a single gun. Shál is said to be about the same size as Mastang, and has probably about 4000 inhabitants, of whom a large number are Afgháns. Bellew remarks, "that in 1872 the garrison of the fort consisted of 100 infantry, mostly Afgháns, 40 horsemen, and a few artillerymen." The same authority also mentions, that on the 30th January 1872 the thermometer stood, at 7 A.M., at 18° F., and that four or five inches of snow had fallen during the previous night. In summer, the climate is considered very pleasant, the heat being tempered by cool breezes from the lofty hills which on all sides surround the valley. Numerous gardens and orchards abound in the suburbs, and the water supply is good.' Quetta has been the seat, since 1876, of a British political officer, with an adequate military

escort, under the official designation of the Governor-General's Agent for Baluchistán. During the Afghán campaigns of 1878-80, Quetta formed the base of operations of the Southern column. Our troops advanced from Quetta to Kandahár, which they occupied with practically no resistance. In 1879 a railway was commenced to Quetta, with a view to its being pushed on to Kandahar. Rapid progress has already been made, and part of the line is now (1880) open. It starts from the Sind Railway system at SUKKUR, and runs *viâ* JACOBABAD through the Bolan Pass.

Quilandi (*Coilandi, Koyilándi*).—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 26′ 25″ N., long. 75° 44′ 11″ E.; pop. (1871), with surrounding township, 10,367, inhabiting 1175 houses. A Moplá seaport between Calicut and Mahé, with a considerable trade. Sub-magistrate's and District *munsif's* courts, customs-house, bungalow, etc. The roadstead, which is protected by a mud bank, is more secure than most anchorages on the coast; and it was here, in 1498, that Vasco da Gama's fleet rode out the south-west monsoon. One of the E. I. Company's ships was lost here in 1793.

Quilon (*Kollam, Coilam, Elangkōn Emporium, Ptol.*).—Town in Quilon District, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 53′ 28″ N., long. 76° 36′ 59″ E.; pop. (1875), 14,366, inhabiting 2877 houses. The third largest town, and the military headquarters of the State. One of the oldest towns on the coast, from whose re-foundation, in 1019 A.D., Travancore reckons its era. It contains the courts of the Divisional *Peshkár*, District judge, and subordinate courts, post office, etc. The ancient history of Quilon takes us back to the records of the primitive Syrian Church in India. It was for long one of the greatest ports of Malabar, and is mentioned as Coilon in a letter of the Nestorian Patriarch, Jesujabus of Adiabene; died 660 A.D. It appears in Arabic as early as 851 A.D., under the name *Kaulam-Mall*, when it was already frequented by ships from China; and during the 13th and 14th centuries it continued to be the great port of trade with Malabar, from China and from Arabia. It is the *Coilum* of Marco Polo; and the *Columbum* of several ecclesiastical writers of that age, one of whom, Friar Jordanus, was consecrated Bishop of Columbum *circ.* 1330. It was a great port for pepper, brazil-wood, and for ginger, the best kind of which was known till late in the middle ages as Columbine ginger. Kaulam was an important place down to the beginning of the 16th century, when Varthema speaks of it as a fine port, and Barbosa as 'a very great city,' and 'with many great merchants, Moors, and Gentoos, whose ships traded to all the Eastern ports, as far as Bengal, Pegu, and the Archipelago. . . . Throughout the Middle Ages it appears to have been one of the chief seats of the "Saint Thomas Christians," and formed, with Káyal (Koilpatam), one of the seven churches ascribed by

Indo-Syrian tradition to Saint Thomas himself.'—(Col. Yule's *Marco Polo*, vol. ii. p. 365, ed. 1874.)

In 1503, the Portuguese established a factory and fort, captured by the Dutch 150 years later. Besides these changes, the town was at different times subject to Cochin, Cully Quilon, and Travancore. In 1741, Travancore unsuccessfully besieged it, but the following year the Quilon Rájá submitted. From 1803 to 1830, a strong British garrison was stationed here. The subsidiary force is now reduced to one Native regiment, whose cantonments lie to the east of the town. It is connected, by a road over the Arian-kavu Pass, with Tinnevelli and Palamcottah.

R

Rabkavi.—Town in the Native State of Sángli, Bombay. Lat. 16° 28′ 25″ N., long. 75° 9′ 16″ E.; pop. (1872), 5240.

Rábkob.—Chief village of Udáipur, a Native State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 28′ 18″ N., and long. 83° 15′ 25″ E., near the centre of the State, in a picturesque bend of the Mánd river, which at this point has carved its way through a vast mass of sandstone rock, and flows in a narrow pass with perpendicular cliffs on either side. The Rájá of Udáipur maintains a police station and jail, and possesses a large granary, in this village; and a periodical market is held here. Rábkob is noted for its gold mines, which have shafts sunk from 20 to 60 feet in depth. These are very close together, as the miners are afraid to run galleries underground. The gold is separated from the soil by washing in wooden troughs. Another plan is to cut small water-courses before the rainy season, so as to catch the deposit of soil carried down by the water; this soil is cleared out several times, and is usually found to contain a certain proportion of gold. Some years ago, a lease of the village, with permission to work the mines for seven years, was obtained from Government, but the scheme had to be abandoned in consequence of the extreme unhealthiness of the climate.

Rabnábád.—An arm of the Bay of Bengal, east of the Haringháta river in the Sundarbans, with a large island of the same name at its mouth. The westernmost channel is narrow, but is thought to have 3 or 3½ fathoms of water; the eastern is supposed to be of nearly the same depth, but shoal water extends for a long way to seaward.

Rabnábád.—Island at the mouth of the channel of the same name, in the Sundarbans, Bengal. Its southern extremity is situated in about lat. 21° 50′ N., 18 or 20 miles to the eastward of the Haringháta entrance. On parts of the island, where the forest once ran unbroken down to the water's edge, a belt of trees has been carefully preserved to protect the land from the violence of cyclones and storm-waves.

Radaur.—Town in Pippli *tahsíl*, Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 1′ N., long. 77° 10′ E.; pop. (1868), 4400.

Rádhanpur.—Native State within the group of States under the supervision of the Political Superintendent of Pálanpur, in the Bombay Presidency; lying between 23° 26′ and 23° 58′ N. lat., and between 71° 28′ and 72° 3′ E. long. Including Munjpur and Sami, it is bounded north by the petty States of Morwára and Terwára; east by Baroda; south by Ahmedábád District and Jhinjhiwára under Káthiáwár; and west by the petty State of Wáráhi under Pálanpur. The area of Rádhanpur, which comprises 150 villages, is 833 square miles; and the population numbers (1872) 91,579, of whom 11,003 are Musalmáns, and the rest Hindus. The country is flat and open. Its rivers, three in number, rise near Mount Abu and the spurs of the Aravalli range, and fall into the Little or Káthiáwár *rann*. As they generally dry up during the hot weather, the inhabitants are dependent on wells for their supply. Water is found at a depth of from 10 to 30 feet, but is sweet only near the surface, owing to the proximity of the *rann*.

The soil is of three kinds—sandy, black, and saline. The chief products are cotton, wheat, and all the common varieties of grain.

From April to July, and in October and November, the heat is excessive. If rain falls, August and September are pleasant months, and from December to March the climate is cool and bracing. The prevailing disease is fever. The only manufacture of importance is the preparation of a fine description of saltpetre.

Rádhanpur, now held by the celebrated Bábi family, who, since the reign of Humáyun, have always been prominent in the annals of Guzerat, is stated formerly to have been in the possession of the Wághelas, and to have been called Lunáwára, after Wághela Lunájí of the Sardhára branch of that tribe. Subsequently it was held as a fief under the Muhammadan kings of Guzerat by Fateh Khán Baluch, and is said to have been named Rádhanpur after Rádhan Khán of that family. The first Bábi entered Hindustán in the company of Humáyun. Bahádur Khán Bábi was appointed Faujdár of Thárad in the reign of Sháh Jahán; and his son Sher Khán Bábi, on account of his local knowledge, was sent to aid Prince Murád Baksh in the government of Guzerat. Afterwards, by his ability and local influence, he obtained the *faujdárí* of Rádhanpur, Sami, Munjpur, and Terwára, with the title of Safdar Khán. His son, Khán Jahán, received the title of Jawán Mard Khán, and acquired the *parganás* of Pátan, Warnagar, Visalnagar, Bijápur Kherálu, etc. His son, again, Kamál-ud-dín Khán, received the title of Khán Jahán II., and usurped the Governorship of Ahmedábád in the disturbed times after the death of Aurangzeb, during the incursions of the Marhattás, and the subsequent collapse of the

imperial power. During his rule, the family were able to establish themselves at Junágarh and Bálásinor. The founder of the Junágarh house was named Bahádur Khán; and the founder of the Bálásinor (Wárásinor) chiefdom was present at the siege of Ahmedábád by Raghunáth Ráo Peshwá. Jawán Mard surrendered the city, and was confirmed as *jágírdár* of Rádhanpur, Sami, Munjpur, Pátan, Visalnagar, Warnagar, Bijápur, and Kherálu. Dámáji Gáekwár, however, wrested from his successors all their dominions excepting Rádhanpur, Sami, and Munjpur. In 1813, the British, through Captain Carnac, then Resident of Baroda, first concluded an engagement with Rádhanpur State, whereby the Gáekwár, under the advice of the British authorities, was empowered to control its external relations and assist in defending it from foreign invasion. In 1819, on aid being demanded by Rádhanpur against the Khosas, a predatory tribe from Sind, Colonel Barclay marched against them and expelled them from Guzerat; and in 1822, Major Miles, who accompanied this force, negotiated the payment of an annual tribute of £1700. This tribute was, in 1825, remitted by the British Government, the engagement of 1820 remaining in force in other respects. The present (1876-77) chief, Nawáb Bismilla Khán, a Pathán of the Bábi family, is thirty-five years old, and administers the State in person. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without permission from the Political Agent. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £60,000 inclusive of transit dues, and maintains a military force of 248 horse and 362 foot. The family of the chief hold a title of adoption, and follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. There are 4 schools in the State, with a total of 203 pupils.

Rádhanpur.—Chief town of Rádhanpur State, Bombay; situated in lat. 23° 49′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 38′ 40″ E. Pop. (1872), 13,910.

Rádhápuram.—Town in Nangúneri *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 44′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 5215, inhabiting 1194 houses. Headquarters of a Sub-magistrate, and mission station of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.

Rae Bareli.—Division, District, *tahsíl*, and town, in Oudh.—*See* RAI BARELI.

Raegarh.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh.—*See* RAIGARH.

Raeka.—State in Rewa Kántha, Bombay.—*See* RAIKA.

Raekot.—Town in Ludhiána District, Punjab.—*See* RAIKOT.

Raesen.—Fort in Málwá, Central India.—*See* RAISIN.

Ragauli.—Hill fort in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 1′ N., long. 80° 22′ E.; distant from Ajáigarh 10 miles north. Stormed by the British forces in 1809, during the operations against

Lachhman Sinh, Rájá of Ajáigarh, whose uncle, Prasád Sinh, had fortified this post with considerable strength. The British carried the lower defences with some difficulty, and during the night the native troops evacuated the position. Elevation above sea level, about 1300 feet.

Rághugarh (*Rághogarh, Raghugarh*).—Native State in Málwá, under superintendence of the Gúna (Goona) and the C. India Agencies. The Chauhán Rájputs of Rághugarh are one of the oldest families in Málwá. In 1780, Mahádají Sindhia imprisoned the Rájá Balwant Sinh and his son Jái Sinh; and hostilities commenced which lasted till 1821, when, through the mediation and guarantee of the British Government, Sindhia ceded to the Chief the town and fort of Rághogarh, with lands estimated to yield more than a *lákh* (say £10,000) of revenue. The *jágír*, however, never yielded as much as £5500. In 1843, owing to family disputes, a fresh arrangement was made, by which the *jágír* was divided between the three principal members of the family, viz. Bijái Sinh, Thákur Chhatar Sál, and Ajít Sinh. The present Rájá, Jái Mandal Sinh, succeeded to Ajít Sinh's share, and holds 120 villages, yielding a revenue of about £2400.

Rághugarh.—Chief town in the State of the same name, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 26′ N., and long. 77° 15′ E., on a tributary of the Párbatí river, and on the road from Gúna to Mhow (Mau), 16 miles south-west of the former and 169 north-east of the latter. It contains a fort, now much dilapidated, but strong enough at the beginning of the century to withstand for some time the forces of Daulat Ráo Sindhia. The town was founded in the reign of Sháh Jahán (1627-58) by Lal Sinh, a Rájput of the Chauhán clan.

Raghunandan.—Hill range in the west of Sylhet District, Assam, running north from the State of Hill Tipperah. Estimated area, 61 square miles; height above sea level, 1000 feet.

Raghunáthapuram.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 43′ 40″ N., long. 84° 51′ E.; pop. (1871), 5206, inhabiting 1526 houses. Headquarters of a Sub-magistrate, and the principal town of the ancient *zamíndárí* of Tekkali, which yields a *peshkash* or tribute of £6000 to Government.

Raghunáthpur.—Hill in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; 8 miles west of Gaurángdihi. Rises abruptly in three prominent peaks, the highest of which is at least 1000 feet above the sea. Raghunáthpur Hill is composed mainly of bare and jagged rock, but is in places thickly covered with dense jungle; it is quite inaccessible to wheeled carriages or beasts of burden, and difficult for men, in some places requiring steps to be cut for a foothold.

Rahá.—Village and police station in Nowgong District, Assam; situated at the junction of the Kapilí river with the Kalang offshoot

of the Brahmaputra, 13 miles south-west of Nowgong town. The population is engaged in fishing and trade, and there is an important ferry over the Kalang.

Ráhatgarh.—Chief town in a tract of the same name in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 47′ N., long. 78° 25′ E., 25 miles west of Ságar town; pop. (1866), 3426. It was held by a branch of the Bhopál family, one of whom, Sultán Muhammad Khán, built the fort, till 1807, when Daulat Ráo Sindhia took the place after a siege of seven months. In 1810, Ráhatgarh was assigned to the British, with other Districts, for the payment of the contingent; and in 1861, it was ceded unconditionally to the British Government. In 1857, Nawáb Adil Muhammad Khán and his brother, Fázl Muhammad Khán, descendants of Sultán Muhammad Khán, with a band of insurgents, seized the fort, which was retaken in the following February by Sir Hugh Rose. Fazl Muhammad Khán was hanged, but his brother escaped. The fort stands on an eminence to the south-west of the town, and is said to have been fifty years in building. The outer defences consist of 26 enormous towers connected by curtain-walls, and enclose 66 acres. This space contained a large *bázár* and many temples and palaces, among them the lofty Bádal Mahál, or 'Cloud Palace,' attributed to one of the Ráj-Gond chiefs of Garhá-Mandla. The east wall was breached for nearly 100 yards by Sir Hugh Rose's guns in 1858; and most of the buildings and the outer walls are now in a ruinous condition. Ráhatgarh has a travellers' bungalow and a Government school. It manufactures excellent shoes and a native cloth called *dosúti*, which are exported to Ságar and Bhopál, besides being sold, together with all kinds of grain, at the market held in the town every Friday. About a mile from the fort, the Bhopál and Bombay road is carried by a bridge of 14 arches over the river Bíná, which has some beautifully wooded reaches near Ráhatgarh.

Rahimatpur. — Municipal town in the Koregáon Subdivision of Sátára District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 35′ 35″ N., and long. 74° 14′ 40″ E., 16 miles south-east of Sátára town. Pop. (1872), 7168; municipal income, £98. Sub-judge's court, post office.

Rahímnagar Pandiáwán.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated on the right bank of the Sái. Pop. (1869), 2500, dwelling in 407 mud houses. The largest of a group of 12 villages belonging to Pánde Bráhmans. Although, as its name imports, it claims a Muhammadan origin, it is now chiefly inhabited by Hindus. A Pathán family, who live in a hamlet of the village called Ballochgarhi, assert their original right to the land, which they state was granted to their ancestors in *jágír* by the Delhi Emperors, but taken from them by Nawáb Saádat Alí, and conferred upon the Bráhmans. The country round is in a high state of cultivation.

Rahman-Garh.—Hill in Kolár District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 21′ N., long. 78° 4′ E.; 4227 feet above sea level. According to local legend, a giant, one of the Pandu brothers, lies buried underneath. Tipú Sultán, after the capture of Nandidrúg by the British, proposed to fortify this hill, but the design was never carried out.

Rahon.—Municipal town in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 3′ N., long. 76° 11′ E.; pop. (1868), 14,394, consisting of 7148 Hindus, 7153 Muhammadans, and 93 Síkhs. Situated on the high bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), about 3 miles from its present bed, the intermediate space being occupied by a malarious swamp. The town was originally known as Rághupur. Brisk trade in sugar; large manufacture of country cloth. Post office, police station, several schools. Polluted water supply; defective sanitary arrangements. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £580, or 10⅝d. per head of population (12,914) within municipal limits.

Rái.—Port in the Salsette Subdivision of Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74, returned at £116,979, viz.—imports, £944, and exports, £116,035.

Rái Bareli (*Rae Bareli*).—Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. It forms the most southerly Division of the Province, and comprises the three Districts of RAI BARELI, SULTANPUR, and PARTABGARH. Area, after recent transfers, 4898 square miles, of which 2443 are cultivated, 864 cultivable but not under cultivation, and 1591 uncultivable waste. Pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes of area), 2,773,211, viz. 2,547,493 Hindus, 225,586 Muhammadans, and 132 Christians. Number of males, 1,400,997, and females, 1,372,214; average density of population, 542 per square mile; number of towns and villages, 6503.

Rái Bareli.—A District of Oudh in Rái Bareli Division, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; situated between 25° 49′ and 26° 35′ N. lat., and between 80° 44′ and 81° 40′ E. long.; area, 1752 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 988,719. Bounded on the north by Lucknow and Bára Bánki; on the east by Sultánpur; on the south by Partábgarh; on the south-west by the Ganges, which separates it from Fatehpur District in the North-Western Provinces; and on the west by Unao. The civil station and administrative headquarters of the District are at RAI BARELI TOWN.

Changes of Jurisdiction.—Rái Bareli has undergone many changes of jurisdiction. At annexation, it consisted of the four *tahsíls* of Bihár, Dálmau, Bareli, and Haidargarh. These were afterwards reduced to three by the distribution of the Dálmau *parganás* among neighbouring *tahsíls*. At the time of the general fiscal redistribution of the Oudh

Districts in 1869, Bihár *tahsíl* was separated from Rái Bareli and added to Unao, while Haidargarh was transferred to Bára Bánki. On the other hand, the *parganás* of Simrauta, Mohanganj, Inhauna, and Rokha Jáis were added to the District from Sultánpur; and Salon and Parshádepur *parganás* from Partábgarh. Before these last transfers, Rái Bareli District contained an area of 1350 square miles and a population (1869) of 782,874. Its present area is returned in the Oudh Administration Report for 1876-77 at 1752 square miles, with a population of 988,719. The District is at present composed of 4 *tahsíls* as follows:—(1) Rái Bareli *tahsíl*, consisting of the *parganá* of Rái Bareli; (2) Lálganj *tahsíl*, with the 3 *parganás* of Dálmau, Sareni, and Khiron; (3) Digbijáiganj *tahsíl*, with the 6 *parganás* of Inhauna, Bachhráwán, Kumhráwán, Hardoi, Simrauta, and Mohanganj; and (4) Salon *tahsíl*, with the 3 *parganás* of Salon, Parshádepur, and Rokha Jáis.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of the District is that of a slightly undulating plain, which, as the country is beautifully wooded, chiefly with mango and *mahuá* groves, gives it a variety not often seen in the valley of the Ganges. The fertility of the soil is remarkable, and the cultivation being of a high class, the beauty of the country is not to be surpassed by any part of the real plain of Hindustán. Scattered here and there all over the District, and more specially towards the Ganges, are noble trees, generally *bargad* or *pípal*. Trees are not, however, grown for timber. The *bábul* is not plentiful, and the bamboo is very scarce, while the *shísham* and the *tún*, both of which thrive well, and would be a certain revenue from the lands which are too broken for cultivation, are only found in the District where planted as ornamental trees since our occupation of the country.

The principal rivers are the Ganges and the Sái, the former skirting the District for 54 miles along its south-western boundary, while the latter runs through the centre of the District in a tortuous direction from north-west to south-east. The Ganges is everywhere navigable by boats of 1200 *maunds*, or nearly 50 tons burthen. The Sái is navigated only during the rains. The banks of both are high and generally precipitous, and the level of the water is 70 or 80 feet below the surface of the country; the beds are sandy. They are not therefore of much value for irrigation, except for the alluvial bottoms in the immediate neighbourhood. There are no large towns on their banks, and no centres of trade or commerce. Very little fishing is carried on except in the *jhíls*. The Sái is spanned by a fine bridge at Rái Bareli, erected in 1864, and is crossed by numerous ferries. The extreme flood discharge of the Sái is about 6000 cubic feet per second; average discharge during the five rainy months, about 1000 cubic feet; mini-

mum discharge in the dry weather, about 25 feet. The minor rivers are—(1) the Loni, which rises in a swamp in Unao, and, after a course of 30 miles in Rái Bareli, falls into the Ganges in Dálmau *parganá;* the stream dries up in the hot weather: (2) the Basha, a water-course dry during the hot weather, but a rather formidable stream during heavy rains; it enters this District from Unao, and finally falls into the Sái a few miles west of Rái Bareli town: (3) the Naiya is also a water-course dry during the hot months; it enters this from Lucknow District, and flows in three channels during the rains, two streams passing into Sultánpur District, and one finding its way into the Sái. The principal *jhíl* is the Múng *tál*, a shallow lake about 1500 acres in extent, extensively used for irrigation by the neighbouring villages, and also valuable for its fish and water-fowl. The indigenous timber trees of the District are *tún* (Cedrela toona), *shísham* (Dalbergia sissoo), *dhák* (Butea frondosa), and *bábul* (Acacia arabica). Numerous varieties of thatching grass grow indigenously, and a variety of rice known as *pasáhi* grows wild in many tanks and marshes. Lac and silk cocoons constitute the principal jungle products. Herds of wild cattle are found in Sálon *parganá* near the Sái river, and do much harm to the crops. They are generally very poor, small animals, but occasionally a fine bull is seen among them. The villagers catch the male calves, which, if taken young, are easily domesticated, and they grow into tolerable bullocks. *Nílgái* are common near the Ganges, and wolves are occasionally met with in jungly tracts. Tigers or leopards are not found.

Population.—The population of Rái Bareli District, after the transfers enumerated in a previous section of this article, is returned at 988,719, residing in 1768 villages or towns and 247,259 houses; average density of the population, 565 per square mile. Classified according to sex, there are 493,075 males and 495,644 females; proportion of males, 49·8 per cent. According to religion, there are 919,930 Hindus, 68,706 Muhammadans, and 83 Christians. The Bráhmans form the most numerous caste, being returned at 128,575. Next in point of numbers come the Ahírs, 115,534; Chamárs, 81,853; and Kshattriyas, 73,320. Compared with other Oudh Districts, the proportion of high castes is large. This is explained by the fact that Rái Bareli was for centuries the centre of Hindu authority, and but little controlled by the Muhammadan kings. The population is almost entirely rural, there being only 4 towns with a population of above 5000, namely—RAI BARELI, pop. 11,544; JAIS, 11,317; DALMAU, 5854; and SALON, 5155. KURSI, which is entered in the Census tables as having a population of 5864, is merely a collection of separate villages, included as one in the Government records. Besides the above towns, there are 58 large villages with from 2000 to 5000 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—The ordinary crops of the District are the same as those of the neighbouring District of PARTABGARH. Rates of rent are reported as being much higher than the general average for the Province, owing to the density of the population, and to the irrigation facilities afforded by numerous masonry wells. A recent official return reports the prevailing rates to be as follows:—Rice, 8s. 6d. per acre; wheat, 17s; inferior grain, 8s. 6d.; opium, 19s. 1½d.; oil-seeds, 9s.; sugar, 18s. 9d.; tobacco, £1, 2s. 6d.; cotton, 19s. 1½d. The highest rents are for lands in the vicinity of the towns. Opium-fields pay as high as Rs. 13 per local *bighá*, or £2, 1s. 6d. per acre; ordinary wheat lands, irrigated from the tenants' own wells, rent up to Rs. 7 per *bighá*, or £1, 2s. 4d. per acre; and unirrigated lands, which grow nothing but gram, barley, and *arhar*, let at Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 16s. per acre, if the soil is not very sandy. Poor sandy soils, remote from village sites, rent as low as 2s. an acre. The settlement officer estimates that one man with a single pair of bullocks can cultivate fairly about 4 acres per annum, from which he may calculate on an average yield of 12 *maunds*, or 8¾ cwts. per acre. The average value of the total produce, together with the straw, is about £9, 12s., and taking the landlord's share at one-third, the rent of the holding should be about £3, 4s., or 16s. per acre. Labourers and village servants are paid chiefly in grain; some also receive grants of rent-free land in payment. In years of scarcity, Rái Bareli is worse off than other Districts, having no railway, and only 56 miles of water communication along its outer border. On the other hand, its masonry wells afford it a greater assurance against famine, its drainage is superior to that of other Districts, it suffers comparatively less from floods, and its area of artificial irrigation is so large that absolute famine ought to be almost unknown. Great scarcity from a deficiency of rainfall in October for the winter rice, and in January for the spring crops, is, however, common enough. On an average, in five years out of ten, the October and January rains are so scanty as to be of no practical value. The average annual rainfall is 38 inches, or about the same as Lucknow; the rains were specially deficient in 1864, 1868, and 1873, when the rainfall was respectively 22, 19, and 41 inches. In the last year, although the rainfall was above the average, the distribution was unequal, and the September-October rains were deficient. In 1864, 1869, and 1874, there was very considerable scarcity in the District, approaching to famine. No special Government measures were called for, and the people were employed on the District roads. The year 1784-85 was one of severe drought and famine, and considerable scarcity occurred in 1770 and 1810. The food of the people is the same as that consumed throughout the rest of Oudh. *Moth*, or peas pottage, and barley bread, or cakes made of barley and gram mixed, form the

ordinary food of the people. There are generally two meals in the day, at noon and at sunset; but if the people are very poor, they content themselves with one meal at sunset, and a little of what is left served up cold the next morning, and called *bási*. *Sánwán* and *kodo* are largely consumed in the rainy season. Rice and the maizes are less used than in Northern and Western Oudh. Three-quarters of a *ser*, or 1½ lb., is reckoned a meagre allowance for a man, and 10 *chhatáks*, or 1¼ lb., a famine allowance of the grains above alluded to.

The Land Tenures are principally *tálukdárí*, 1198 villages being held under this description of tenure, and 537 are held as *zamíndárí* by smaller proprietors. Among the latter, subdivision of property has been carried to an extreme degree, the 537 villages being held by no less than about 11,000 small proprietors, two-thirds of whom possess on an average not more than 10 acres of land each. On the other hand, in the *tálukdárí* estates, 11 proprietors hold among them 350,000 acres; and no less than 816,000 acres, or two-thirds of the entire District, are held in 62 great estates, owned by 100 chiefs. Thirty-five *tálukdárs* pay a Government revenue exceeding £500 a year, varying from £643 for the Usah estate of 6 villages and an area of 5000 acres, to £11,342 for the large property of Tholri, which comprises 129 villages, and covers an area of 92,260 acres. The principal landed proprietors are the Tilok Chándi Báis, whose estates lie in the west of the District, and comprise *parganás* Dálmau, Rái Bareli, Sareni, Khiron, Hardoi, and others; and the Kanhpurias in the east, who hold Sálon, Rokha Jáis, Parshádepur, Mohanganj, and Simrauta.

Means of Communication, etc.—Rái Bareli District contains 332 miles of made road, the principal lines being as follows:—(1) From Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Fatehpur, length within the District, 17 miles; (2) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Unao, 38 miles; (3) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Allahábád, 14 miles; (4) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Partábgarh, 10 miles; (5) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Sultánpur, 8 miles; (6) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Faizábád (Fyzábád), 12 miles; (7) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Lucknow, 24 miles; (8) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Haidargarh, 28 miles; (9) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Lálganj to Rálpur, 28 miles; (10) from Lálganj *viâ* Bachhráwán to Haidargarh, 40 miles; (11) from Dálmau to Bihár, 18 miles; (12) from Digbijáiganj *viâ* Bachhráwán, 18 miles; (13) from Bihár to Púrwa, 6 miles; (14) from Bihár to Baksár, 12 miles; (15) from Chándakitur to Unao, 36 miles; (16) from Chándakitur to Sálon, 10 miles; (17) from Lucknow *viâ* Haidargarh to Sultánpur, 13 miles. Only the first-named road is metalled. Water communication is afforded by the Ganges, which flows along the south-eastern boundary of the District. The District manufactures consist of a little cloth-weaving for local use, the making of brass and copper

utensils, and a little glass-ware, principally bottles for holding Ganges water.

Administration.—Rái Bareli is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, assisted by one or more Assistant Commissioners, 3 or 4 European or Native Assistant Commissioners, 4 *tahsíldárs*, and 7 Honorary Magistrates. The District is divided into 4 *tahsíls* or revenue Subdivisions, comprising 13 *parganás*, as follows:—(1) Lálganj *tahsíl*, comprising the *parganás* of Dálmau, Sareni, and Khiron; (2) Rái Bareli *tahsíl*, which is conterminous with Rái Bareli *parganá*; (3) Digbijáiganj *tahsíl*, comprising *parganás* Inhauna, Bachhráwán, Kumhráwán, Hardoi, Simrauta, and Mohanganj; (4) Sálon *tahsíl*, comprising *parganás* Sálon, Parshádepur, and Rokha Jáis. The total revenue, imperial and local, of the District in 1872-73, was £149,306, of which £122,411 was derived from the land tax. The expenditure in the same year amounted to £28,597. The District contains 20 civil and revenue, and 20 magisterial courts. For police purposes, Rái Bareli is divided into 9 police circles, viz. Rái Bareli, Bachhráwán, Mohanganj, Digbijáiganj, Gúrbakshganj, Lálganj, Mau, Jagatpur, and Sálon. The regular, municipal, and rural police force aggregates 3746 men of all ranks, maintained, in 1873, at a total estimated cost, from all sources, of £16,099. The number of cases sent by the police to the Magistrates in that year was 1611, in which convictions were obtained in 1236. The daily average jail population in 1875 was 706, of whom 63 were females. Education is afforded by 106 schools, including a high school at the civil station, attended in 1875 by 4686 pupils. There are also 4 charitable dispensaries in the larger towns, which in 1875-76 afforded relief to 18,647 persons.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual rainfall of Rái Bareli District for the eleven years ending 1875 was 37·7 inches. The rainfall, however, is very capricious, and frequently fails in the very months when it is most needed for agricultural purposes, although the total for the year may be equal to the average. Any rainfall less than 35 inches results, as a rule, in very inferior crops. The prevalent disease is fever, but cholera and small-pox are also endemic in the District, and yearly carry off numbers of victims. Cattle-disease is also common.

Rái Bareli.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision and *parganá*, both conterminous, in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mahárájganj, on the east by Sálon, and on the south and west by Lálganj and Purwá. Area, 371 square miles, divided into 363 villages, of which 283 are held in *tálukdárí*, 60 in *zamíndárí*, and 20 in *pattidárí* tenure. The principal land-holding caste are the Báis Kshattriyas, descendants of the great Báis Rájá Tilok Chánd, the rise of whose power is narrated in the District article. Government land revenue, £53,492, at the rate

of 4s. 6d. per acre. Pop. (1869), 212,533, viz. 199,564 Hindus and 12,969 Muhammadans.

Rái Bareli.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and administrative headquarters of the District; situated on the banks of the Sái, 48 miles south-east of Lucknow, in lat. 26° 13′ 50″ N., and long. 81° 16′ 25″ E. The town was founded by the Bhars, and called after them Bharauli, subsequently corrupted into Bareli. With regard to the prefix Rái, one story asserts that it is derived from Ráhi, a village near the town; while another attributes the name to the fact of the place having long been in the possession of a Káyasth family bearing the title of Rái. After the expulsion of the Bhars by Ibráhim Shárki of Jaunpur, early in the 15th century, the town passed into the possession of the Muhammadans. Pop. (1869), including the suburb of Jahánábád, 11,544; municipal income (1876-77), £2061. Three large markets, with daily sales averaging £118. The town possesses many architectural features, the principal being a spacious and strong fort erected by Ibráhim Shárki, and constructed of bricks 2 feet long by 1 thick and 1½ wide, probably taken from more ancient strongholds of the previous Bhar possessors. In the centre of the fort is a huge well or *baoli*, 108 yards in circumference, dug down to the springs, and then lined with brick walls supporting balconies, and containing chambers on a level with the water. These are now more or less in ruins. Tradition relates that when the fort was building, all that was erected during the day fell down in the course of the ensuing night. In his perplexity, the king had resort to a holy man of Jaunpur, Makhdum Sayyid Jáfri, who walked over the ground, after which no interruption occurred in the work. The saint's tomb stands beside the gate of the fort. The other ancient buildings are the magnificent palace and tomb of Nawáb Jahán Khán, the Governor in the time of Aurangzeb, and 4 handsome mosques. One of them is without domes, but has three spacious halls, and is said to be a copy of the Ka'aba at Mecca. A handsome bridge was constructed over the Sái a few years ago, at the expense of the neighbouring landholders. Besides the usual Government courts and buildings, the town contains 2 schools, one supported by a Christian mission; a *sarái* or travellers' rest-house, and a charitable dispensary.

Ráidhák. — River of Northern Bengal; rises in the Bhután Hills, and flows southwards through the Western Dwárs of Jalpáigurí District, till it enters Kuch Behar territory near the small village of Bhurjkutí. In its upper course through Jalpáigurí, which it enters in lat. 26° 43′ 30″ N., and long. 89° 48′ E., this river forms a large island by throwing off a branch stream, called the Máinágáon *nadí*, which leaves the Ráidhák at the point where it enters the District, and rejoins it about 8 or 9 miles lower down. The Ráidhák cuts across the eastern angle of

Kuch Behar, and unites with the Káljání, flowing in the same direction, to form the Sankos. The combined streams fall into the Brahmaputra below Dhubri.

Ráidrug (*Ráyadrug*).—Town in Ráidrug *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 14° 41′ 50″ N., long. 76° 52′ 50″ E.; pop. (1871), 7729; houses, 1564. Consists of a citadel and lower fort, the latter containing the town, which is regularly laid out. The citadel occupies the summit of a mass of granite rocks, rising to the height of 1200 feet, and connected by a lower ridge with a group of wild hills, which form the north-eastern boundary of the plain of Chitaldrug. The south face of the rock is abrupt and inaccessible. The lower fort is guarded by a triple line of works, and a narrow pathway hewn in the rock leads from it to the citadel. At intervals along this path are gateways of solid masonry and fresh lines of fortification. About half-way up the hill is the old palace of the *pálegár*, said to have been built about the beginning of the 16th century; and close by are two handsome temples dedicated to Ráma and Krishna. There are also the ruins of houses and gardens on the rock, but few people now live there. The earlier *pálegárs* of Ráidrug were Boyas; and it is said that the palace and the forts were built by one of them, named Janga Náyak. About the end of the 16th century, this family seems to have been deposed; and one of the descendants of the ex-Commander-in-Chief of Vijáyanagar succeeded in making himself master of Ráidrug and the adjacent fort of Konderpi-drug. In 1766, the *pálegár* assisted Haidar Alí in the reduction of Sirá, as a reward for which his tribute was reduced to Rs. 50,000 (say £5000) as soon as Haidar became master of the country. Subsequently the *pálegár*, Venkatapati Náyudu, gave offence to Tipú by refusing to join him when about to attack Adoni. Tipú captured Ráidrug and sent the *pálegár* to Seringapatam, where he was assassinated in 1791, just before Ráidrug was stormed by Lord Cornwallis. In 1799, his sister's son, Gopál Náyudu, was released from Seringapatam, and soon made his way to Ráidrug, where he attempted to collect a following. He was taken prisoner by Muhammad Amín Khán, who had been sent by the Nizám to settle the District, and was taken to Haidarábád. After the cession to the British, he was sent to Gooty (Gúti), where he resided as a *quasi*-State prisoner till his death. Pensions were granted to his family, which is now extinct.

Ráiganj.—Town in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 36′ 40″ N., and long. 88° 9′ 48″ E., on the river Kulik. An important seat of river trade. In 1876-77, the registered exports were valued at £108,820, chiefly jute (£28,000), gunny bags (£51,000), grain (£9000); the imports were valued at £13,503, including salt (£9000) and raw cotton (£3000). Ráiganj is a substantial town,

surrounded by extensive rice-fields, and containing numerous tanks. A dispensary was established here in 1872.

Ráigarh.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 45′ and 22° 35′ N. lat., and between 83° and 83° 35′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Native States of Sargúja and Gángpur, under Chutiá Nágpur; on the south by the river Mahánadi and Sambalpur District; on the east by the Kolábirá chiefship; and on the west by Chandrapur chiefship and Saktí. Pop. (1872), 63,304 (of whom 39,706 were Hindus); residing in 497 villages or townships and 13,064 houses, on an area of 1486 square miles, 300 of which are cultivated, while of the portion lying waste 400 are returned as cultivable. Towards the Mahánadi on the south, Ráigarh is well cultivated, though the soil is poor and sandy; but the northern and eastern parts are a waste of hill and jungle, containing *sál*, *sáj*, *bíjesál*, and many other kinds of useful timber, but no teak of any size. The principal rivers are the Mahánadi and its affluents, the Tedí, Mán, and Kelú. Rice forms the staple crop; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also produced, besides a little wheat and gram. The jungles yield lac, *tasar*-silk, cocoa-nuts, and *rál*, or *sál* resin. The manufactures are unimportant. They consist of brass and bell-metal vessels, *tasar*-silk fabrics, and coarse cotton cloth. Iron-ore is abundant, but no mines are worked regularly. The road from Sambalpur to Biláspur passes through the south of the State. The chief is a Gond; and, according to tradition, his ancestor Thákur Daryáo Sinh obtained the title of Rájá for assistance afforded to the Marhattás. The State now includes the once independent chiefship of Bargarh, which was conferred on the family about fifty years ago. Four subordinate chiefships are held by connections of the Rájá, viz.—Anjár Sinh, possessing 12 villages; Amar Sinh, 5; Thákur Raghunáth Sinh, 30; and Thákur Parameswar Sinh, 30. The supposed gross revenue of the State amounts to £750, and the tribute is fixed at £40. There is a fairly attended school at Ráigarh; and the Census of 1872 returned 247 children not exceeding 12 years, and 465 persons above that age, all of whom were males, as able to read and write, or under instruction. The climate resembles that of Sambalpur, and is thought unhealthy. Fever is the prevailing disease, especially from September to November; and in the hot season, cholera is a frequent visitant. The chief town, Ráigarh, is situated in lat. 21° 54′ N., and long. 83° 25′ E.

Ráigarh (*Ráygad*).—Town in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Lat. 18° 14′ N., long. 73° 30′ E.; 32 miles south-west from Poona, 65 south-east from Bombay. A fortress, situated among the Northern Gháts, and regarded in the last century as one of the greatest strongholds of India. In 1648, Ráigarh fell into the hands of Sivají; in 1690, it was taken by Aurangzeb; and having reverted to the

Marhattás during the decay of the Muhammadan power, it was invested by a British force in April 1818, and surrendered after a bombardment of 14 days.

Ráigarh (*Raegarh*).—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; situated 6 miles from Bihár, on the Partábgarh road. Pop. (1869), 4323, viz. 4008 Hindus and 315 Musalmáns. Three Hindu temples and one mosque; small *bázár*.

Rai-hla.—Revenue circle in the Kyouk-gyí township of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 220 square miles. Its northern portion lies on both sides of the Tsit-toung river, but its southern on the right bank only. Pop. (1876-77), 5512; gross revenue, £1462.

Raika.—One of the petty States of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 2½ square miles. There are two chiefs. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £270; and tribute of £57 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Ráikot.—Municipal town in Ludhiána District, Punjab, and former capital of a Native State. Lat. 30° 39′ N., long. 75° 35′ E.; pop. (1868), 9165, consisting of 5013 Muhammadans, 2843 Hindus, 798 Síkhs, and 511 'others.' Distant from Ludhiána town 30 miles south-west. Residence of a celebrated family of Muhammadan Rájputs, the Ráis of Ráikot, who held a position of great importance in early times. Tulsi Dás, founder of the family, emigrated from Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere) in 1323, and settled at Farídkot. He embraced the Muhammadan creed, and took the name of Shaikh Chachu. His descendants founded the towns of Sháhjahánpur (in Ludhiána) and Talwandi. They obtained the title of Rái from an Emperor Alá-ud-dín, probably the Sayyid prince who reigned from 1445 to 1478. They acquired possession of Ludhiána town in 1620; and during the 18th century owned a considerable tract of country, extending apparently beyond the Sutlej (Satlaj). After the rise of the Síkh power, the Ráis held their own till the beginning of the present century, by calling in the aid of George Thomas, the adventurer of Hariána. Rái Alyás, the last independent prince, died in 1802, and left the territory to his mother, Núr-ul-Nissa. In 1806, however, Ranjít Sinh, crossing the Sutlej to aid the Rájás of Nábha and Jhínd against their neighbour of Patiála, took the opportunity of reducing the Muhammadan family, whose dominions he divided between himself and his allies. Rání Núr-ul-Nissa retained possession of Ráikot itself, and other members of the family received small *jágírs*. On the extension of British protection to the CIS-SUTLEJ STATES, our Government recognised the *de facto* title of Ranjít Sinh's grantees; and only allowed the Rání's claim to the territories which she held at the date of British occupation. Núr-ul-Nissa died in 1831, and was succeeded by her daughter-in-law, widow of Rái Alyás, by name Bhág Bhari. On her death in 1854, the British Government

recognised her nephew and adopted son, Imám Bakhsh Khán, as heir to her estate and to the title of Rái. He is still (1876) alive, and has three sons. Besides the revenues of Ráikot and Mallah, he receives from Government a pension of £200 a year. The town is surrounded by a wall, and substantially built. It contains several handsome houses, the property of the Rái and of Síkh gentlemen of the neighbourhood. Police station, post office, dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £163, or 4¾d. per head of population (8262) within municipal limits.

Rai-laing.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2770; gross revenue, £470.

Ráimangal.—Estuary in the Sundarbans, Bengal. Its entrance is situated about 12 miles eastward of the GUASUBA RIVER; and about 6 miles from the sea it receives the united streams of three rivers—the Háriábhángá being the westernmost, the Ráimangal proper the next, and the Jamuná the easternmost. The point of land on the west side of the entrance is situated in lat. 21° 37′ N., with a depth of 5 or 6 fathoms in the channel close to it, and with from 10 to 12 fathoms inside towards the Háriábhángá river. From the point to seaward, the depth decreases gradually to 4 fathoms in the western channel, the outer part of which is separated from the Guásubá by a sandbank which stretches out from the land between them. The eastern channel leads directly to the entrance of the Ráimangal and Jamuná rivers, having a sandbank between it and the western channel, with deep water inside. According to Captain Horsburgh's *Sailing Directions*, two considerable reefs of breakers have formed on the western side of the channel leading to these rivers, situated respectively at 5 and 10 miles from the land.

Ráimatlá.—River in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal.—*See* MATLA.

Ráiná.—Village and *tháná* or police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 4′ 20″ N., long. 87° 56′ 40″ E.; pop. under 5000.

Ráingarh.—Fort in Keunthál State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 7′ N., long. 77° 48′ E. Crowns a peak on the left bank of the river Pábar, which is here crossed (according to Thornton) by a wooden bridge. Belonged to Bashahr before the Gúrkha invasion; surrendered to the British in 1815, and transferred to Keunthál in exchange for territory now forming part of Simla District. Small community of Bráhmans hold the surrounding valley, and have charge of two temples of Thibetan architecture. Elevation of fort above sea level, 5408 feet.

Ráipur.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 19° 48′ and 21° 45′ N. lat., and between 80° 28′ and 82° 38′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Bilάspur, on the south by Bastar, on the east by petty States attached to the Sambalpur District, and on the west by Chánda and Bálághát.

Population in 1872 (exclusive of 4 dependent Native States), 1,093,405 persons; area, 11,885 square miles. The administrative headquarters of the District are at RAIPUR, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—Ráipur forms the southern portion of the Chhatisgarh country, which may be generally described as the basin of the Upper Mahánadi and its tributaries, together with the hills in which these tributaries take their rise. The District spreads out in a vast plateau, merging on the north in the open plain of Biláspur, while on every other side ranges of hills, branching from the great Vindhyán chain, close it in. To the north-east and south, wild tracts of jungle contrast with the populous villages among which they lie; everywhere else the plain country has been cleared, except where a strip has been left waste for the sake of the thatching grass it produces, or because the rocky soil is more valuable as jungle than as cultivated land. Ráipur is drained by two rivers, which subsequently unite, and form the Mahánadi proper. The larger of these, the Seonáth, rises in Chánda, and after its entrance into Ráipur, flows in a north-easterly direction for about 120 miles, till it receives the Hámp from the west; it then turns westward for 40 miles, during part of its course forming the boundary between Ráipur and Biláspur, and finally joins the Mahánadi in the north-east corner of the District. On the right bank its tributaries are the Karkará, Tendúlá, Kárún, and Khorsí; on the left bank, the Gumariá, Am, Súrí, Gárághát, Ghogwá, and Hámp. Like the Seonáth, most of these streams flow over a rocky or gravelly bottom, and retain their water nearly all the year. The Mahánadi proper, here a comparatively insignificant stream, has its source in the extreme south-east of the District, and flows due west for about 30 miles. It then turns sharply to the north-east, its bed lying for 20 miles through a narrow valley, in places only 500 yards wide. Emerging into more open country, it rolls on in a northerly or north-easterly direction till it unites with the Seonáth. During its course in Ráipur, the Mahánadi is swelled by the Pairí and Sundar, which meet before their junction with the Mahánadi, and by the Kesho, Korár, and Nainí, which flow from the east through hilly tracts, along narrow but fertile valleys, and fall directly into that river. In this part of the District the river beds are wide wastes of sand, dry for more than half the year, and at no time, except during high flood, containing much water. Everywhere in Ráipur the country is dotted with tanks. These are generally formed by throwing a dam across a hollow; but in most large villages one or more tanks may be found embanked on all sides, and planted with trees, the work of some public-spirited villager, or perhaps of some enterprising Banjárá who used to pasture his pack-bullocks in the village in the days when the jungle was yet uncut. Such tanks, which depend almost entirely on the rainfall for their supply, give

better drinking water than those formed by damming the valleys; but as little care is taken to keep them clear, the water generally becomes a mass of impurity in the hot weather. Wells were unknown until quite recent years; but the regulations granting land rent-free to persons digging them, has led to the construction of wells lined with masonry in many villages. Near the Mahánadi, and to the south of the District, water occurs at from 12 to 24 feet below the surface; but in the east it is not so easily procured. The highland borders of Ráipur, on the east and south, and to a smaller extent on the west, are mostly occupied by the chiefships attached to the District, which fringe the *khálsa* or portion under British administration. The hills are rarely over 1500 feet in height, except the Gauragárh plateau, and the range which extends from the south of Seháwá into Bastar and Kánker. The hilly tracts on the outskirts of Ráipur are mainly composed of gneiss and quartzite, while the sandstone rocks are intersected with trap dikes. The soil here is poor, except in the narrow valleys, where the land is almost always in the swampy state suitable for the cultivation of rice. Throughout the plain country the soil is generally fertile. The stratum below the alluvial deposits is invariably a soft sandstone slate, frequently covered with a layer of laterite gravel; and in many places the shale has been converted into hard vitrified sandstone, forming an excellent building material. Below this again lies the blue limestone, which crops out in numerous places on the surface, and is constantly found in the beds of the rivers. Iron-ore abounds, that found at Dallí in the Lohára chiefship, and in the hills to the west of Gandái, being reckoned the best. The red ochre of Gandái and Thákurtolá also bears a high repute. Apart from the trees round the tanks, but few are to be seen throughout the greater part of the plain. The teak, which once grew luxuriantly on all the river banks, has nearly disappeared, and scarcely a mango grove embellishes the country. The commonest tree is the *mahuá*, which is always preserved when the others are cleared away. The uplands on the borders, however, are still covered with forests; though few of these, except the great *sál* forest lands of Seháwá and Bindrá Nawágarh, and that along the Kamtára *nálá* in the Deorí and Kauríá chiefships, yield much valuable timber. The Gandái and Lohára chiefships also contain large tracts of young teak; and among the hills of the Gaurágarh plateau, as well as on the high range in the south of Seháwá, spread noble forests of *sáj* and *tendú*. Ráipur offers great attractions to the sportsman. In the hot months, tigers and leopards are found near the streams; on the hills, bears abound; to the east, the wild buffalo; while in every direction the antelope, the spotted deer, and other varieties of game are met with.

History.—According to Gond traditions, Ráipur was originally inhabited by a race of giants, endued with supernatural powers; who,

however, at length yielded to the marvellous prowess of the Gond heroes. Those critics who think that a poetic legend must always contain a kernel of prose refer these mythical victories to the conflict of the Gonds with the Bhunjíyás and other Kolarian races, with whom the Gonds came in contact in Chhatísgarh, as elsewhere in Central India. To the east of the Mahánadi, the Bhunjíyás and Binjwárs maintained themselves till a late period, and the ruined forts along the river still testify to the raids of the Kolarians from the Sonákhán Hills. Our earliest historical knowledge of Ráipur reveals the District as forming part of the dominions under the Haihai-Bansí dynasty of Ratanpur. On the accession of Surdeva, twentieth of his line, about 750 A.D., the Chhatísgarh country was divided; and while Surdeva retained the northern half, his younger brother, Brahmadeva, moved to Ráipur, and governed the southern section. From this time two separate Rájás ruled in Chhatísgarh; for when, after nine generations, the direct line from Brahmadeva became extinct, a younger scion of the Ratanpur house, Deranáth Sinh, the son of Rájá Jagannáth Sinhadeva, again proceeded to Ráipur about 1360, and his issue continued in uninterrupted possession until the arrival of the Marhattás. The elder branch of the Haihai-Bansí family, however, always claimed a certain supremacy over the southern kingdom. Probably some time elapsed before the Ráipur Government was firmly established; for an inscription in a temple at Rájím, dated Samvat 796 or A.D. 750, commemorates the conquests of a chief named Jagat Pál, who seems to have acquired the fort of Drúg by a marriage connection with Prithwí Deva, the successor of Surdeva at Ratanpur. Apparently the Haihai-Bansí kings made no alteration in the system of society established by the Gonds. The clan, not the village, formed the social unit; and while in Upper India the family developed into the village community, throughout Chhatísgarh the clan settled in a cluster of villages, which were formed into a *táluk*. All the original inhabitants of each *táluk* either were or deemed themselves connected with the chief by ties of blood. Immigration from Hindustán, and the mere lapse of time, however, gradually relaxed the bond of union, till nothing was left to combine the people except their common dependence upon a central authority. Thus, with the decay of the ruling race, all national feeling faded away; and the Marhattás met with little or no opposition when they entered the country. The first Marhattá invasion took place in 1741, when Bháskar Pandit, on his way to attack Bengal, defeated Rájá Raghunáth Sinh at Ratanpur; but neither he nor Mohan Sinh, who was put in charge of Chhatísgarh by Raghojí I. of Nágpur in 1745, at first interfered with Amar Sinh, the Rájá of the younger line ruling in Ráipur. Five years later, however, Amar Sinh was quietly ousted, receiving for his maintenance the *parganás* of Rájím, Patan, and

Ráipur, for which he paid a yearly tribute of £700. After several changes, in 1822 the present arrangement was made, by which his grandson Raghunáth Sinh received Bargáon, with the neighbouring villages of Govindá, Múrbená, Nándgáon, and Báleswar, free of revenue. Ráipur was already in a condition of decay when it came under the Marhattás, and the raids of the Binjwárs of Sonákhán continued to desolate the eastern portion of the District. Bimbájí, and on his death, in 1787, his widow Anandí Bái, effected some improvement; but after the time of her successor, the *subahdár* Vitthal Divákar, the government became a mere engine of financial oppression, and the country relapsed into absolute anarchy. On the deposition of Apá Sáhib in 1818, the Nágpur dominions were taken under British superintendence during the minority of Raghojí III.; and by the mild but firm administration of Colonel Agnew, Ráipur rapidly progressed, until Raghojí III. assumed the throne in 1830. From that time till 1854, when the Nágpur kingdom lapsed to the British Government, Chhatísgarh was administered by *subahs*, who continued the system organized by Colonel Agnew with such success, that in 1855 the revenue of Ráipur alone nearly equalled the revenue paid by the whole of Chhatísgarh in 1818. Captain Elliot, the officer appointed after the annexation, at first had jurisdiction over all Chhatísgarh, together with Bastar. In 1856, the country was divided into 3 *tahsíls*, two of which, Dhamtári and Ráipur, were in the present District, and Drúg was made a *tahsíl* in the following year. In 1861, Biláspur was formed into a separate District, and in 1863, a fourth *tahsíl* at Simgá was added to Ráipur. The District suffered but little during the Mutiny, the only disturbances being those excited by Náráyan Sinh, the last of the Binjwár chiefs of Sonákhán. He was hanged in 1858, and his estate confiscated. Since then the raids of the hill tribes into the east of the District have entirely ceased, and the tracts they desolated are fast becoming the most flourishing portions of Ráipur.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Ráipur at 1,322,662 persons. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 1,437,255. The latest estimate of 1877 indicates a total of 1,871,957. The above returns include the population of the 4 feudatory States attached to the District; but as a separate article is devoted to each of these dependencies (see under CHHUIKHADAN, KANKER, KHAIRAGARH, and NANDGAON), the following examination of the people will be confined to the *khálsa* or portion of the District under direct British management. The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 1,093,405 persons, on an area of 11,885 square miles, residing in 4431 villages or townships and 241,922 houses. Persons per square mile, 92; villages per square mile, 0·37; houses per square mile, 20·36; persons per village, 246·76; persons per house, 4·52. Ráipur is thus the largest

and most populous District in the Central Provinces. Classified according to sex—males, 545,360; females, 548,045. The male children in 1877 numbered 336,721, the female children 304,060. The ethnical division in 1877 included—Europeans, 39; Eurasians, 42; aboriginal tribes, 344,031; Hindus, 916,987; Muhammadans, 14,916; Buddhists and Jains, 247. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds (194,448 in 1872), the remainder consisting of Bharias, Marias, etc. Among Hindus, the Bráhmans in 1872 numbered 16,800: the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Telis, 161,276; Ahírs or Gaulis, 97,861; Chamárs, 57,308; Dhimárs, 53,212; Kurmís, 47,845. Native Christians in 1877, 319. The Kanwárs, who supplied the chief counsellors and most trusted followers of the Haihai-Bansí kings, in 1872 numbered only 11,214. The warlike traditions of the race are maintained in their worship of Jhágrá Khánd under the form of a sword; in the jungles, however, like their Gond neighbours, they adore Burhá Deo and Dúlá Deo, the household god. The Banjáras or carriers, once numerous in Ráipur, have gradually retreated to the east as the jungle disappeared, and in 1872 only amounted to 5474. The Satnámís (113,786 in number) and the Kabírpanthís (64,979), Hindus who recognise no distinction of caste, are almost confined to Ráipur and Biláspur. They are recruited mainly from the Chamárs, with whom the Satnámís are often confused, but also from the Ahírs and other castes. Like Rái Dás, the founder of the Satnámís, Kabír, whom the Kabírpanthís follow, was a disciple of Rámánand, and taught a similar doctrine. An account of the Satnámís will be found in the article on the CENTRAL PROVINCES (vol. ii. p. 364).

Division into Town and Country.—There are only two towns in the District with a population exceeding 5000, viz.—RAIPUR, the District capital, pop. (1872) 19,116; and DHAMTARI, 6023. Townships of 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 43; from 200 to 1000, 2094; villages of fewer than 200 inhabitants, 2292. Ráipur, the only municipality in the District in the year 1876-77, had a population within municipal limits of 20,289, and an income of £3235, of which £3006 were derived from taxation, being 2s. 11d. per head; expenditure, £3262.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 11,885 square miles, only 3500 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 4369 are returned as cultivable; 10,813 acres are irrigated entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 4½d. per acre of cultivated land, and 2d. per acre of cultivable land. Rice forms the staple crop of the District, and appears to have once been the only produce of Chhatísgarh. Even now the rice crop alone is under the special protection of Thákur Deo, the great local god, and his priest the *báiga;* while the questions as to the time of sowing the modern wheat crop, the colour of the bullocks to be yoked to the plough, and the direction in which the sower

is to proceed, are referred to the Bráhman *purohit*. In 1876, rice occupied 1,175,870 acres. The other *kharíf* crops are cotton, which was grown on 82,547 acres, *arhar*, *til*, and *kodo*. The last, a hardy and prolific pulse, supplies the chief food of the poorer classes, who find a pound of *kodo* as satisfying as twice the quantity of rice. For all these crops the land is ploughed twice before sowing, and the seed is sown broadcast. Of the *rabí* harvest, the principal grain is wheat, which occupied 266,837 acres in 1876. It is only sown on the best lands after repeated ploughings, while for gram, castor-oil, and the other *rabí* crops the land is generally ploughed only once or twice. Sugar-cane was grown on 33,059 acres, and, though requiring much labour, amply repays the cultivator; 36,919 acres were devoted to tobacco. Rotation of crops is not practised; and though the peasants are industrious, the agriculture of the District is for the most part exceedingly slovenly. The average out-turn per acre is returned as follows:—Rice, 390 lbs.; wheat, 570 lbs.; inferior grain, 1760 lbs.; oil-seeds, 190 lbs.; sugar (*gúr*), 418 lbs.; tobacco, 138 lbs. The Census of 1872 showed a total of over 5500 proprietors, of whom 534 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 144,630, of whom 19,232 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 125,398 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land in 1876 are returned as follows:—Land suited for rice or oil-seeds, 1s.; for wheat, 1s. 6d.; for inferior grain, 1s. 4d.; for cotton, 1s. 3d.; for opium, tobacco, or sugar-cane, 3s. A skilled labourer received 1s. per diem; an unskilled labourer, 3d. The ordinary price of produce per cwt. was—rice and linseed, 4s. 3d.; cotton, 51s. 4d.; raw sugar (*gúr*), 11s. 3d.; refined sugar, 38s. 2d.

Natural Calamities.—So land-locked a region as Ráipur incurs considerable risk of famine, but the hills which shut in the District also ensure in most years an adequate rainfall. In 1835, and again in 1844, however, terrible famines desolated the country; and in 1869, Ráipur suffered severely both from famine and from the cholera epidemic which accompanied it.

Commerce and Trade.—The only trading towns in the District are Ráipur, which has a considerable traffic in grain, lac, and cotton; and Dhamtári and Rájím, where lac and other jungle produce are collected for export. The commerce of Ráipur is of quite recent creation. Under the Marhattás, heavy transit duties prevented its development, and cowries formed the only circulating medium. Metals constitute the chief import. English piece-goods have not penetrated beyond the wealthier classes; the bulk of the people still taking the produce of their patch of cotton to the native weavers, who are found in most villages, to be converted into clothing for themselves and their families. The principal export is grain; but cotton, sugar, and coarse cloth are also exported. There were, in 1877, only 82 miles of road, entirely

of the second class, in Ráipur. The most important traffic, that with Nágpur, follows two principal routes, one by the Great Eastern Road, and the other by a line passing through Khairágarh, and thence by Kamtha to Nágpur. The route to the eastern coast runs through the Fingeswar and Bindrá Nawágarh chiefships, whence it turns due south down the valley of Khariár, subsequently meeting another road running south from Seháwá, along which a good deal of traffic passes. Two roads of less importance lead towards Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and other tracks pass by Bálod to Wairágarh, and by Dhamtári and Kánker to Bastar and the Godávari river. During the rains, the Mahánadi affords means of communication for 132 miles.

Administration.—In 1861, Ráipur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1876-77, £85,460, of which the land yielded £64,880. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £15,284. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 10; magistrates, 12; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 51 miles; average distance, 14 miles. Number of police, 467, costing £7756, being 1 policeman to about every 24 square miles and to every 2140 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 557, of whom 37 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £2628, of which, however, £1073 was spent on the jail buildings. The number of Government or aided schools under inspection in the District was 204, attended by 13,786 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is generally good, being free from sudden or violent changes. Average temperature in the shade during 1876 at the civil station:—May, highest reading 114° F., lowest 76°; July, highest 94°, lowest 72·3°; December, highest 83°, lowest 50·5° F. In that year the rainfall was only 43·51 inches; the average fall slightly exceeds 51 inches. The prevailing diseases of the District are fevers and small-pox; cholera, for which Ráipur formerly bore an ill name, is now a less frequent visitant. Stone is also a common complaint. In 1876, 5 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to a total of 47,011 patients. Vital statistics showed in the same year a death-rate of 21·74 per thousand, which nearly coincides with the mean of the previous five years.

Ráipur.—The central *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 314,925, residing in 1687 villages or townships and 78,718 houses; area, 5791 square miles.

Ráipur.—The chief town of Ráipur District, and headquarters of the Chhatísgarh Division of the Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 15′ N., and long. 81° 41′ E., on a plateau 950 feet above sea level, about 180 miles east of Nágpur, by the road from Nágpur to Calcutta

viá Sambalpur and Midnapur. Pop. (1872), 19,116. Ráipur first appears in history when Bráhma Deva established his court here in 750. The site of the old town lay more to the south and west than at present, extending to the river bank at Mahádeo Ghát. The modern town dates from 1830, when Colonel Agnew laid out the main street, which is nearly 2 miles long, and contains a good *bázár* and many fine houses, some of them with elaborately carved pillars and balconies. Tanks and groves of trees surround the town. The Búrhá tank, to the east of the fort, and, like it, over 400 years old, covered nearly a square mile, but has been reduced in extent by recent improvements. On its eastern side, public gardens have been laid out. The Mahárájí tank, south of the fort, takes its name from Maháráj Dání, a revenue-farmer under the Marhattás a century ago, who constructed an embankment half a mile from the fort, and converted a pestilential swamp into a beautiful tank, covering about half a square mile. Close to the embankment stands a temple to Rámchandra, built and endowed in 1775 by Bimbájí Bhonslá, Rájá of Ráipur. The Koko tank, constructed by Kodand Sinh, Kamávisdár of Ráipur, about fifty years ago, has stone retaining walls on three sides, with steps down to the water. Into this tank are thrown the images of Ganpati at the close of the festival of *Ganesh Chaturkí*. The Ambá tank, constructed by a Telí merchant 200 years ago, was repaired about 1850, and faced with massive stone terraces, having steps to the water on three sides, at the cost of Sobhárám Mahájan of Ráipur. This tank lies a quarter of a mile to the north of the town, and supplies a large quarter with excellent drinking water. A mile to the west of the city is the Rájá tank, constructed two centuries ago, in the time of Rájá Bariár Sinh, with one side faced with stone. The Telí Bándh, constructed fifty years ago by Dínanáth, father of Sobhárám Mahájan, has also one side faced with stone; and though small, holds deep water. Lastly, the Kankálí tank, in the middle of the town, was constructed of stone throughout, about two centuries ago, by Kirpál Gír Mahant, who also built a small temple to Mahádeo in the centre. Its water has a fetid smell, but is used by the people for washing purposes. The fort was founded by Rájá Bhuvaneswar Sinh in 1460; and before recent improvements in artillery, must have been a place of immense strength. Its outer walls, nearly a mile in circumference, consisted of five bastions, with connecting curtains, pierced by three large gates and one postern. It was protected on the east by the Búrhá tank, and on the south and west by the Mahárájí tank. Immense masses of fine limestone and granite were used in constructing the walls, though no quarries exist in the neighbourhood. The main gate, on the north side, was entire when the British took possession in 1818; and lately, in knocking down one of the bastions, the workmen came on some old tombs 20 feet below the surface, carefully protected

by stone walls, but without any inscription. Ráipur carries on a large and increasing trade in grain, lac, cotton, and other produce. It contains, besides the ordinary District offices, the court, civil and criminal, of a Divisional Commissioner. It is also the headquarters of a circle of education; and possesses a thriving Anglo-vernacular school, and a normal school. It has a main and branch dispensary, a post office, and a handsome police station; and since 1863, a church, a travellers' bungalow and *sarái* for native travellers, and a central jail have been erected. The garrison consists of a regiment of Native infantry, under the Brigadier-General commanding the Kámthí (Kamptee) force.

Ráipur. — *Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Sultánpur District, Oudh; bounded north by Muzaffarkhána *tahsíl*, east by Sultánpur, south by Partábgarh, and west by Mahárájganj. Area, 366 square miles, of which 163 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 199,038, viz. Hindus, 192,444, and Muhammadans, 6594. Average density of population, 432 per square mile, being the most sparsely populated *tahsíl* in the District; number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 461. This *tahsíl* comprises the two *parganás* of Amethi and Tappa Asl.

Ráirakhol.—Petty Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 55′ and 21° 20′ N. lat., and between 84° and 84° 48′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Bámrá, on the east by Athmallik and Angúl, on the west by Sambalpur District, and on the south by Sonpur. Pop. (1872), 12,660 (of whom 9597 were Hindus), residing in 146 villages or townships and 2395 houses, on an area of 833 square miles, 150 of which are cultivated, while of the portion lying waste 275 are returned as cultivable. The principal rivers, the Chanpálí and Tíkkirá, are insignificant streams. The soil is light and sandy. Rice forms the staple crop; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also grown. Ráirakhol contains valuable *sál* forests, besides other useful timber; but for want of means of transport, it can find no market. The forests yield *sál* resin and bees-wax, and lac is found in considerable quantities. Iron-ore of excellent quality abounds, and smelting is carried on in eight on ten villages. Traders from Cuttack come up periodically and carry off the iron on pack-bullocks. The smelters pay the Rájá but a trifling tax for the right to work up the ore; but as most of them are deeply indebted to the traders for advances, the profit goes almost entirely into the pockets of the traders. The main road from Sambalpur to Cuttack *viâ* Angúl passes through the south of the State; to the northward, also, another road leads to Cuttack, which has now fallen into disuse. Ráirakhol was formerly subordinate to Bámrá, but was erected into an independent State, forming one of the Garhját cluster, by the Patná Rájás about a century ago. The chief is a Janamuni Rájput. His supposed gross revenue amounts to £600, and he pays a tribute of £58. The revenue has

of late fallen off, through over-assessment and other mismanagement. Education is utterly neglected. In 1872, no child was returned as under instruction; and only 18 persons between twelve and twenty years of age, and 10 above twenty, were said to be able to read and write. The climate, like that of Sambalpur, is unhealthy. Fever is the prevailing disease, especially from September to November; and cholera is frequently epidemic.

Ráiri.—Fort in Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated in lat. 15° 45′ N., and long. 73° 44′ E., on a rocky height at the mouth of a small but navigable river, 225 miles south from Bombay. Built (according to Thornton) in 1662 by Sivají; subsequently it came into the possession of the rulers of Sáwantwári, and, on becoming a stronghold of piracy, was in 1765 taken by a British force, but restored the following year. By a treaty made in 1819, Ráiri reverted to the British, whose rights were confirmed in 1820.

Rái Sankli.—One of the petty States of Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 3 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £900; and tribute of £55 is paid to the British Government, and £38 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Ráisín.—Fort in the Native State of Bhopál, Málwá, Central India; situated in lat. 23° 20′ N., and long. 77° 46′ 10″ E., at the eastern extremity of a sandstone hill, on the road from Hoshangábád to Ságar (Saugor), 50 miles north of the former and 87 south-west of the latter. Thornton states that it was formerly a fort of great importance. In 1543, it was besieged by Sher Sháh, and at length capitulated on condition of the garrison being allowed to march out unmolested. Towards the middle of the 18th century, Ráisín was seized by the Marhattás, from whom it was wrested, in 1748, by the Nawáb of Bhopál, between whom and the British Government a treaty was made here in 1818.

Rájáborárí.—State forest in the south of Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; covering about 160 square miles, and extending from Sáulígarh on the east to Kálíbhít and Makrái on the west. It has been much exhausted by indiscriminate felling, and will require a long rest.

Rájágrihá.—A range of rocky hills in Patná District, Bengal, extending from lat. 24° 58′ 30″ to 25° 1′ 30″ N., and from long. 85° 25′ to 85° 33′ 30″ E., consisting mainly of two parallel ridges enclosing a narrow valley, which is intersected by numerous ravines and passes. Adjacent to the two ridges are many detached peaks and knolls. In geological formation, the Rájágrihá Hills are igneous, being composed almost entirely of quartz and siliceous hornstone. They seldom exceed a thousand feet in height, and are for the most part covered with dense low jungle. Hot springs are very common in this range.

Rájágrihá (or *Rájgir*).—Ruins in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25°

1′ 45″ N., long. 85° 28′ E. Identified by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton with Rájágrihá, the residence of Buddha and capital of the ancient Magadha; and by General Cunningham with Kusá-gára-pura ('the town of the *kúsá* grass'), visited by Hiouen Thsang, and called by him *Kiu-she-kie-lo-pu-lo.* Rájágriha, which means 'the royal residence,' was also known as Giribrájá, 'the hill surrounded;' and under this name the capital of Jarásindhu, King of Magadha (1426 B.C.), is mentioned both in the *Rámáyana* and the *Mahábhárata.* It is also described by Fa-Hian and Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese pilgrims; the latter gives an account of the hot springs found at this place. The five hills surrounding the city, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*, and in the Pálí annals, have been examined by General Cunningham. The first, Baibhár, is undoubtedly the Webhars Mountain of the Pálí annals, on the side of which was the famous Sattapanni Cave, where the first Buddhist synod was held in 543 B.C. The second hill, Ratnágiri, is the one called by Fa-Hian 'The Fig-tree Cave,' where Buddha meditated after his meals, identical with the Rishigiri of the *Mahábhárata*, and the Pandao of the Pálí annals. A paved zigzag road leads to a small temple on the summit of this mountain, which is still used by Jains. The third hill, Bipula, is clearly the Wepullo of the Pálí annals, and the Chait-yaka of the *Mahábhárata.* The other two hills have Jain temples. Traces of the outer wall around the ancient town of Rájágrihá may still be seen; the inner wall is in a better state of preservation, and about 4⅝ miles in circumference. The new Rájgir is about two-thirds of a mile north of the old town, and, according to Buddhist annals, was built by Srenika or Bimbisára, the father of Ajáta Satru, the contemporary of Buddha, and therefore not later than 560 B.C. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton stated that the town stood upon the north-west corner of a fort, which is an irregular pentagonal building in form, and apparently of great antiquity. At the south-west extremity, are traces of a more modern fort, with stone walls, which might have been a kind of citadel. It occupies a space of about 600 yards. The eastern and northern faces had no ditch, but there was a strong stone wall about 18 feet thick, with circular projections at intervals.

Rajahmundry.—Town in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* RAJAMAHENDRI.

Rájákularáman.—Town in Srívilliputúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 23′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 40′ 30″ E., on the Tinnevelli road. Pop. (1871), 5447, largely engaged in agriculture; number of houses, 1242.

Rájámahendri (*Rájámahendravaram, Rajahmundry*).—Town in Rájámahendri *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras; situated in lat. 17° N., and long. 81° 48′ 30″ E., on the left bank of the Godávari, 30 miles from the sea and 365 miles north-east of Madras. Pop. (1871), 19,682,

inhabiting 3486 houses. Formerly headquarters of a separate District of the same name, now incorporated with Godávari, and at present the centre of the Chief Assistant Collector's Subdivision, with the courts of a District Judge, Sub-judges, and Magistrates. Contains post and telegraph offices, 2 churches, civil dispensary, museum, reading-room, public gardens, provincial college, and several schools. There are 2 jails, in the largest of which, the central prison, are 1002 convicts. Rájámahendri is a fairly built town (the suburb of Innespet being excellently laid out), connected by road or canal with every other place of importance in the District. Tradition divides the merit of founding this city between the Orissa and the Chálukya princes; and General Cunningham believes it to have been the capital of Kalinga at the time of Hiouen Thsang's visit. This Fergusson disputes, and with apparent reason; but there is little doubt that the city of the Vengi kings was identical with the site of the present town, and that this also was the seat of the Orissa power in the south. In 1471, Rájámahendri was taken by the Muhammadans, and given to Nizám-ul-Mulk as a *jágír*. In 1512, Krishna Ráya re-took the city, and restored it to Orissa. For over sixty years, Hindu rule continued, and Rájámahendri withstood two protracted sieges, till in 1571-72 it yielded to the Musalmáns of the Deccan, under Rafat Khán. For the next century and a half, Rájámahendri was the scene of perpetual fighting, and at last fell to Golconda, and became one of the 4 Nawábships of that Government. It was granted to the French in 1753, and was Bussy's headquarters from 1754 to 1757. Hither, retreating before Forde, came the remains of Cauflan's army after the battle of Condore (1758), only to be driven out by the Company's sepoys. Shortly afterwards, Forde proceeded against Masulipatam; and during his absence, the French recaptured Rájámahendri, but, finding nothing of value (the treasure had been sent to a Dutch settlement), evacuated it almost immediately. With the exception of a slight disturbance in 1765, the history of Rájámahendri ends here.

Rájanpur.—Southern *tahsíl* of Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab; consisting of a strip of land stretching from the Sulâiman Mountains to the river Indus. Area, 2691 square miles; pop. (1868), 71,684; persons per square mile, 49; number of villages, 72. Out of a total of 1,722,569 acres, only 82,962 were under cultivation in 1870.

Rájanpur.—Town in Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 29° 6′ 20″ N., long. 70° 21′ 54″ E.; distant from Derá Ghází Khán town 73 miles south. Founded in 1745 by Makhdúm Shaikh Rájhan, who ousted the original Náhir possessors, and made himself master of their estates. Headquarters of an Assistant Commissioner on outpost duty. A regiment of cavalry and two companies of infantry are stationed here.

Rájápur.—Chief town of the Rájápur Subdivision of Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated in lat. 16° 39′ 10″ N., and long. 73° 33′ 20″ E., 30 miles south by east of Ratnágiri town. Pop. (1872), 5368. Sub-judge's court; post office.

Rájápur (or *Majhgáon*).—Commercial town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 24′ N., long. 81° 12′ E.; pop. (1872), 6670, consisting of 6256 Hindus (chiefly of the trading classes) and 414 Musalmáns. Lies on the banks of the Jumna (Jamuná), 18 miles north-east of Karwi. Principal mart for all the produce of the District, especially cotton, which is conveyed by boat to Allahábád, and so up the Ganges to Cawnpore. Allahábád firms have agencies for the purchase of produce. Trade now declining, as the railway has superseded the river for purposes of transport. Many Rájápur merchants have removed to Satná in Ríwí. Founded in the reign of Akbar by Tulsi Dás, a devotee from Soron, who erected a temple, and attracted many followers. He established several peculiar restrictions, still scrupulously observed by the inhabitants; amongst others, that no houses (except shrines) should be built of stone, even the wealthiest merchants still living in mud houses. Several handsome temples. Four annual fairs. Police station. Ferry, let at an annual rental of £200.

Rájá Sansí.—Town in Amritsar (Umritsir) District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 3922. Lies on the Siálkot road, 7 miles north-west of Amritsar city. Founded in 1570 by Rájá Sansí Ját, from whom it derives its name. His brother, Kirtu, was common ancestor of Ranjít Sinh and of the Sindhanwália family. The latter still reside in the town, which owes its importance to their presence. They rose to great distinction under the Síkh Government, and still own 36 villages in *jágír*. Sardár Shamsher Sinh, present head of the family, has a handsome mansion in the town, finely decorated within, and exercises the powers of a Deputy Commissioner within the *jágír*. Post office; Anglo-vernacular school.

Rájaulí.—Municipal town in Náwáda Subdivision, Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 39′ N., long. 85° 32′ 25″ E.; pop. (1872), 5012; municipal revenue (1876-77), £51; rate of taxation, 2⅝d. per head of population; police force, 14 men. Manufacture of *ghí* for export to Calcutta; jungle produce, from the adjacent hills, and talc are brought here for distribution among the neighbouring Districts. A metalled road connects Rájaulí with the towns of Nawádá and Behar.

Rájgarh.—Native State in Málwá, under the political superintendence of the Bhopál and the Central India Agencies. The District known as OMATWAR was conquered during the decline of the Mughal power by the Omat Rájputs. About 1681 A.D., the *diwán* or minister of the chief compelled his master to divide the territory. The portion assigned to the *diwán* was called NARSINHGARH, while that retained by the chief or Rawat was known as Rájgarh. Eventually Narsinhgarh

became tributary to Holkar, and Rájgarh to Sindhia. The area of Rájgarh is 642 square miles; the population was estimated in 1875 at 75,742. The revenue in the same year was given at £35,000, of which £8500 is paid to Sindhia as tribute for the District of Tallian. The principal products of the State are opium and grain. In 1871, the Rawat Moti Sinh openly announced his conversion to the Muhammadan faith, and took the name of Muhammad Abdul Wasih Khán. He received the title of Nawáb from the British Government in 1872, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. The military force consists of 240 cavalry, 360 infantry, 4 field and 8 other guns, with 12 artillerymen. The town of Rájgarh lies in lat. 24° 0′ 23″ N., and long. 76° 46′ 38″ E.

Rájgarh.—One of the petty States in the Deputy Bhíl Agency, under the Central India Agency. The chief or Bhumiá, Cháin Sinh, holds several villages, and receives payment from both Holkar and the Dhar State, on condition of keeping the roads free from thieves, and being answerable for all robberies in certain tracts.

Rájgarh.—*Parganá* in Múl *tahsíl*, Chánda District, Central Provinces; comprising 140 villages, on an area of 447 square miles. The Wainganga river bounds it on the east; it is intersected from the north by two branches of the Andhárí, which meet about its centre, and a third branch flows along its western boundary in a south-easterly direction. The western and northern portions are hilly and covered with forests; in the lowlands, the soil is sandy, and produces rice and sugar-cane. Principal towns, SAOLI and MUL. Rájgarh formerly belonged to the Gond princes of Wairágarh.

Rájgarh.—Ruined fort in Sírmúr State, Punjab. Lat. 30° 52′ N., long. 77° 23′ E. Described by Thornton as situated upon a natural terrace, projecting from the side of a mountain. Square outline; tower at each corner, about 40 feet high and 20 square. Fired and nearly demolished by the Gúrkhas in 1814. Elevation above sea level, 7115 feet.

Rájgarh.—Town in Ajmere-Mhairwára District, Rájputána; distant from Ajmere city 10 miles south, from Nasírábád 6 miles west. Ruins of a fort, with rampart of massive rough stones. Small lake, apparently artificial. Held by Gaur Rájputs before the ascendency of the Rahtors, and restored in *jágír* to the descendant of its original rulers in 1874. Lat. 26° 17′ 50″ N., long. 74° 40′ 35″ E.

Rájghát.—Fort in Benares District, North-Western Provinces, commanding the city of Benares, and situated on an eminence 50 feet above the plain, at the junction of the Barna river with the Ganges. Erected during the Mutiny of 1857, to command the ferry, but now abandoned. Considerable remains of Buddhist buildings have been found on its site.

Rájgir.—Ruins in Patná District, Bengal.—*See* RAJAGRIHA.

Rájim.—Town in Ráipur District, Central Provinces, at the junc-

tion of the Pairí and Mahánadi rivers, 24 miles south-east of Ráipur town. Lat. 20° 58′ 30″ N., long. 81° 55′ 0″ E. Famous for the temple of Rájíva Lochan, and for the pilgrimage and fair held in his honour every April. The fair lasts a month, and attracts from 20,000 to 30,000 persons. The temple contains an image 4 feet high, of black stone, standing, and facing the west. Its four arms hold the Hindu emblems of the conch, the discus, the club, and the lotus. Garuda, the bird of Vishnu, faces the god in a posture of devotion; and behind him are images of Hanumán and of Jagat Pál, the founder of the temple. The doorway between them, finely carved with Nágas (serpent demi-gods) entwined in endless folds, leads to two modern temples of Mahádeva; and a third, behind, is dedicated to the wife of an oil-seller, contemporary, according to a popular story, with Jagat Pál. In the same court of the great temple are shrines sacred to Narsinha, Wáman, Varáha, Badrínáth, and Jagannáth. The temple of Rámchandra contains two ancient inscriptions, one of them dated Samvat 796, or A.D. 750. Both commemorate the origin of Jagat Pál, and recount the enemies he conquered. Mention is also made of a fort called Durga (doubtless Drúg, 25 miles west of Ráipur), which Jagat Pál obtained by marrying the Rájá's daughter. On a small rocky island at the junction of the rivers stands a temple of Mahádeva, called Kuleswar, said to have been built by the widow of Jagat Pál. It bears an inscription, now illegible. Rájim has a town school, a District post office, and a police station. It is also a depôt for the collection and export of lac, of which from 3000 to 4000 bullock-loads are annually sent to the markets of Nágpur and Jabalpur.

Rájkot.—Native State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Bombay. Area, 479 square miles, comprising 60 villages; pop. (1872), 36,770. An undulating country, with a stony soil, watered by several streams, of which only one, the Ají, is perennial. The common kinds of grain, sugar-cane, and cotton are the principal agricultural products. They are exported from Gogo and Jorya, and to a certain extent by rail from Wadhwán. Carts are the chief means of transport, but pack-bullocks and horses are also employed. The climate, though hot in the months of April, May, and October, is generally healthy. The prevalent disease is fever.

Rájkot is an offshoot of Nawánagar, and ranks officially as a 'second-class' State in Káthiáwár. In 1807, the ruler executed the usual engagements. The chief has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. The family follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. The present (1876-77) chief, Thákur Sáhib Báwájí, a Hindu of the Játeja Rájput caste, is twenty-one years of age. He received his education at the Rájkumar College at Rájkot. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly

revenue of £17,110, and pays a tribute of £2132 jointly to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. He maintains a military force of 327 men. The State contains 10 schools, with a total of 500 pupils.

Rájkot.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 22° 17′ 40″ N., long. 70° 55′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,979. Rájkot is a cantonment, and the headquarters of the Political Agent for Káthiáwár. It contains a college for the sons of chiefs, a sort of Eton for the aristocracy of Western India, which has already done good work in the education and moral training of those who will hereafter be the rulers of the Native States.

Rájmahál.—Subdivision of the Santál Parganás District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 42′ 15″ to 25° 18′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 29′ 45″ to 87° 57′ E.; area, 1343 square miles; villages, 2302; houses, 67,835. Pop. (1872), 332,194, of whom 108,705, or 32·7 per cent., were Hindus; 31,911, or 9·6 per cent., Muhammadans; 266, or 0·1 per cent., Christians; and 191,312, or 57·6 per cent., of other denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 49·4 per cent.; average density of population, 247 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 1·71; persons per village, 144; houses per square mile, 51; inmates per house, 4·9. This Subdivision comprises the two *thánás* or police circles of Rájmahál and Pákaur. In 1870-71, it contained 3 magisterial and revenue courts, a general police force of 69 men, and a village watch of 305 men; the separate cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £2765, 4s.

Rájmahál.—Town in the Santál Parganás District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 2′ 51″ N., and long. 87° 52′ 51″ E., on the right bank of the Ganges. Now a mere collection of mud huts, interspersed with a few respectable houses. The ruins of the old Muhammadan city, buried in rank jungle, extend for about 4 miles to the west of the modern town. Mán Sinh, Akbar's Rájput general, after his return from the conquest of Orissa in 1592, selected Rájmahál (formerly Agmahál) as the capital of Bengal, on account of its central position with respect to that Province and to Behar, and from its commanding the Ganges and the pass of Teliágarhí, through which the railway now runs. The chief antiquities of Rájmahál are the Jamá Masjíd of Mán Sinh, the palaces of Sultán Sujá and Mír Kásim Alí Nawáb of Bengal, the Phulbárí or flower-garden, and numerous mosques and monuments. (For a full account of these, and of the history of Rájmahál, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiv. pp. 325, 326.) In the beginning of the present century, Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton estimated that the town contained from 25,000 to 30,000 persons. Rájmahál is a distributing centre for cotton goods, and also a seat of export trade in grain, *tasar* silk, small-sized timber, hill bamboos, oil-seeds, etc. In 1860, when the loop-line of the railway was opened to this town, an arm of the Ganges ran immediately under the station, forming a navigable channel

for steamers and boats of all sizes. In 1863-64, the river abandoned this channel, leaving an alluvial bank in its place. Rájmahál is now 3 miles distant from the main stream of the Ganges, and can only be approached by large boats during the rains. In consequence of this change, the bulk of its trade has been transferred to SAHIBGANJ, though it still retains the local traffic across the Ganges with Maldah District. In 1877-78, European piece-goods to the value of £273,000 were received at the station of Rájmahál from Calcutta.

Rájmahál Hills. — The most important range in the Santál Parganás District, Bengal; estimated to cover an area of 1366 square miles. The height nowhere exceeds 2000 feet above sea level, and the average elevation is considerably less. The most striking feature of the northern portion of this range is the great central valley, which extends 24 miles north and south, with an average width of 5 miles, and is surrounded by hills on every side. The Rájmahál Hills were long regarded as a continuation of the Vindhyán range of Central India; but Mr. V. Ball, of the Geological Survey, after a detailed examination of these hills, came to the conclusion that they form an isolated group, the north-eastern extremity of which constitutes the turning-point of the Ganges. Geologically, there is nothing in common between the two. The Vindhyás are composed of quartzite, sandstone, limestone, and shales of great age; while the Rájmahál Hills consist of overflowing basaltic trap of comparatively recent date, resting upon coal measures and metamorphic rocks of a gneissose character.

Rájnagar.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal.—*See* NAGAR.

Rájoli.—Chiefship in the south-east of Bhandára District, Central Provinces; comprising 13 villages, on an area of 43 square miles, less than 2 of which are cultivated. The chief is a Muhammadan; but the population consists for the most part of Gonds and Gaulís. The forests afford pasturage to large herds of cattle. The town of Rájoli lies in lat. 20° 40′ N., and long. 80° 16′ E.

Rájpára.—Petty State in Undsarvíya, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £252; and tribute of £25 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £1, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rájpipla.—Native State within the British Political Ageny of Rewa Kántha, Bombay, lying between lat. 21° 23′ and 21° 59′ N., and between long. 73° 5′ and 74° E. Area (comprising 591 villages), 1514 square miles; pop. (1872), 120,036, of whom about 60 per cent. are Bhíls. Bounded on the north by the river Narbada (Nerbudda) and the Mehwási estates of Rewa Kántha; on the east by the Mehwási estates under the District of Khandesh; on the south by the State of Baroda, and Surat District; and on the west by Broach District. Its extreme length from north to south is 36 miles, and its extreme breadth from east to west, 55 miles.

Physical Aspects.—Three-fourths of the State are occupied by a continuation of the Sátpura range, known as the Rájpipla Hills, nowhere exceeding 2000 feet in height above the sea, which form the watershed between the rivers Narbada and Tápti. Towards the west, the hills gradually subside into gentle undulations. The State contains several forests, yielding valuable teak and other timber, which is exported in large quantities to the neighbouring British Districts. In the Narbada valley, the soil is alluvial and very productive, and by far the largest share of the revenue is derived from lands lying in the vicinity of that river. The more valuable crops, such as cotton, oil-seeds, tobacco, and sugar-cane, are grown on lands annually submerged by the Narbada floods. The principal rivers of Rájpipla are the Narbada, skirting the territory north and west for nearly 100 miles; and the Karjan, which rises in the hills of the Nánchal *parganá*, and, flowing north into the Narbada, divides the State into two equal portions. Cornelian mines are worked at Ratanpur, a village about 14 miles above the town of Broach. The chief routes through the country are a cart-track between Khandesh and Guzerat, and a road from Surat to Málwá, which crosses the Narbada at Tilakwára. The climate is exceedingly unhealthy, malarious fevers being prevalent from September to February.

The family of the Rájpipla chief is said to derive its origin from one Chokárána, son of Saidáwat, Rájá of Ujjain, a Rájput of the Parnar tribe, who, having quarrelled with his father, left his own country and established himself in the village of Pipla, in the most inaccessible part of the hills to the south of the modern town of Nándod. The only daughter of Chokárána married Mokers or Makheráj, a Rájput of the Gohel tribe, who resided in the island of Premgar or Perim in the Gulf of Cambay. Makheráj had by her two sons, Dungarjí and Gemarsinhjí. The former founded Bhaunagar, and the latter succeeded Chokárána. Since that time (about 1470), the Gohel dynasty has ruled in Rájpipla. The Musalmán kings of Ahmedábád had before this taken an agreement from the Rájá to furnish 1000 foot-soldiers and 300 horsemen. This arrangement remained in force until Akbar took Guzerat, in 1573, when he imposed a tribute on the country of £3555 in lieu of the contingent. This was paid until the end of the reign of Aurangzeb (1707), when, the imperial authority declining, the payments became very irregular, and if opportunity favoured, were altogether evaded. Subsequent to the overthrow of the Muhammadan authority, Dámájí Gáekwár, in the latter half of the 18th century, succeeded in securing a half-share of four of the most fertile subdivisions of the territory. These were afterwards released at the cost of an annual payment of £4000 to the Gáekwár, and this sum later on was raised to £9200. Such rapid and frequent encroachments on the State, and internal quarrels, led to the intervention of the British

Government. About the close of 1821, of two disputants, the rightful claimant, Verisaljí, was placed on the throne by the British. Verisaljí, who died in 1868, ruled till 1860, when, with the permission of the British Government, he abdicated in favour of his only son, Gambhersinhjí. The present (1876-77) chief is thirty-two years of age. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £80,000; and pays a tribute of £6500 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, through the British Government. He maintains a force of 456 men, horse and foot, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. He has power to try for capital offences, without the permission of the Political Agent, any person except British subjects. The capital of the State, NANDOD, is situated on the river Karjan, in lat. 21° 54′ N., long. 73° 34′ E., and contains a population (1872) of 9768. A palace was built here about fifty years ago, previous to which time the rulers of the country resided in a fort on the hills, called Rájpi la.

Rájpur.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 3 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £1400; and tribute of £241 is paid to the British Government, and £18 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rájpur.—One of the petty States of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, about 1 square mile. The chief is named Rawal Súr Sinh. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £25; and tribute of £5 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Rájpura.—One of the petty States in Hálár (Hallár), Káthiáwár, Bombay. Consists of 9 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £1200; and tribute of £292 is paid to the British Government, and £24 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rájpur Alí.—Native State in the Bhíl Agency, under the Central Indian Agency, lying between the Narbada (Nerbudda) river and the Vindhyá Mountains. Area, about 800 square miles; estimated population (1875), 29,000, almost all of whom are Bhíls, who, since the introduction of British rule, have renounced many of their lawless habits and settled in fixed habitations. The products are *bájra* (Holcus spicatus) and *makka* or Indian corn. No richer crops can be raised in the hilly tracts, of which the greater part of the State is composed. The revenue in 1870-71 was returned at £16,154, and the expenditure at £12,977.

The chiefs of Rájpur Alí are Sesodia Rájputs, connected with the Udáipur (Oodeypore) family. There is no record of the date when the State was established, or of its first rulers. It appears, however, owing to its wild and hilly position, to have been little disturbed during the turmoils caused by the Marhattá invasion of Málwá. Immediately before the establishment of British supremacy in Málwá, Ráná Pratáb Sinh was chief in Rájpur Alí. He had in his service a

Mekráni adventurer named Muzaffar, who put down pretenders to the succession, and managed the State, after the Ráná's death, in trust for his posthumous son, Jaswant Sinh. Jaswant Sinh died in 1862, leaving a will by which he divided the State between his two sons. The British Government, in consultation with the neighbouring chiefs, set this will aside, and allowed the elder son, Gangdeo, to succeed to the whole State; but during the later years of Gangdeo's life, his incompetence, and the anarchy arising thence, compelled the British authorities to take the territory temporarily under management. Gangdeo died in 1871, and was succeeded by his brother Rúpdeo, the present ruler. The State of Rájpur Alí pays a tribute of £1100 to the British Government, of which amount £1000 is paid over to the State of Dhar, to which Rájpur Alí was formerly feudatory. Rájpur Alí also contributes £150 per annum towards the cost of the Málwá Bhíl Corps. The military force consists of 2 guns, 31 horse, and 150 policemen. The chief is entitled to a salute of 9 guns. The State contains one Urdu and six Hindí schools.

Rájputána.—In the administrative nomenclature of the Indian Empire, Rájputána is the name of a great territorial circle, which includes 19 States, having each its own autonomy and separate chief, together with the British District of Ajmere. These territories lie between 23° and 30° N. lat., and between 69° 30′ and 78° 15′ E. long.; their total area is approximately estimated at 130,934 square miles, and their total population at about 10,000,000 souls. The following table gives a detailed estimate of area and population; but, except for Ajmere, the figures are only approximate:—

Name.	Estimated Area in Square Miles.	Estimated Population.
Ulwur (Alwar)	3,380	778,596
Bánswára	1,322	150,000
Bhartpur	1,824	743,710
Bíkaner	22,340	350,000
Búndi	1,917	224,000
Dholpur	819	227,976
Dungarpur	952	100,000
Jáipur	14,882	1,900,000
Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere)	16,447	72,000
Jhálávár	2,146	226,000
Karauli	1,260	140,000
Kishengarh	817	105,000
Kotah	4,484	527,000
Márwár or Jodhpur	37,000	2,000,000
Mewár or Udáipur	13,674	1,161,400
Partábgarh	1,215	150,000
Sirohi	2,057	153,000
Tonk	1,688	320,000
Ajmere-Mhairwára (British)	2,710	396,331

Rájputána, as traced on the map of India, is of very irregular shape, being touched on the west, north, east, and south by the extreme outer boundary lines of the States of Jáisalmír (Jesyulmere), Bíkaner, Dholpur, and Bánswára. On the west, Rájputána is bounded by the Province of Sind, and on the north-west by the State of Baháwalpur. Thence its northern and eastern frontier marches with the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces, until, as it turns south-eastward, it touches Sindhia's country. Its southern boundary runs across the central region of India in an irregular, zigzag line, which separates the Rájputána States from a number of other Native States in Central India, and which marks off generally the northern extension of that great belt of territory subject, mediately or immediately, to the Marhattá powers—Sindhia, Holkar, and the Gáekwár of Baroda.

It may be useful to give roughly the geographical position of the several States within this area.

The States of Jáisalmír, Márwár or Jodhpur, and Bíkaner form a homogeneous group in the west and north.

In the north-east is Ulwur (Alwar), and a tract called Shaikhawati, subject to Jáipur.

Jáipur, Bhartpur, Dholpur, Karauli, Búndi, Kotah, and Jháláwár may be grouped together as the eastern and south-eastern States.

The southern States are Partábgarh, Bánswára, Dungarpur, Mewár or Udáipur, with Sirohi in the south-west.

In the centre lie the British District of Ajmere, Kishengarh State, the petty chiefship of Sháhpura, with parts of Tonk. As the last State consists of six isolated patches of territory, it does not fall into any one of these rough geographical groups.

Physical Aspects.—The Aravalli Mountains intersect the country almost from end to end, in a line running nearly north-east and south-west. About three-fifths of Rájputána lie north-west of this line, leaving two-fifths on the south-east. The heights of Mount Abu lie at the south-western extremity of this range; whilst its north-eastern end may be said to terminate near Khetri in the Shaikhawati country, though a series of broken rocks and ridges are continued in the direction of Delhi. In the following paragraphs, and throughout the article, I am indebted to the excellent account of Rájputána supplied to me by the Foreign Office, Calcutta. I regret that its length (99 pages) precludes me from incorporating it in full.

Looking first at the division of Rájputána that lies north-west of the Aravallis, we find a vast tract stretching from Sind on the west, along the Southern Punjab frontier to near Delhi on the north-east. As a whole, this tract is sandy, ill watered, and unproductive; improving gradually from a mere desert in the far west and north-west to comparatively fertile and habitable lands towards the north-east. The

Great Desert, which separates Rájputána from Sind along the whole of its frontier, extends from the edges of the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh) beyond the Loni river northward. Eastward of this is a zone of less absolutely sterile country, consisting of rocky land cut up by limestone ridges, which to some degree protect it from the desert sands; and still farther eastward is 'The Little Desert,' which runs up from the Loni between Jáisalmír and Jodhpur into the northern wastes.

The character of the desert region is the same everywhere. It is covered with sandhills, shaped generally in long, straight ridges, which seldom meet, but run in parallel lines, separated by short and fairly regular intervals, something like the ripple marks on a sea-shore upon a very magnified scale. Some of these ridges may be 2 miles long, varying from 50 to 100 feet in height. Their sides are water-marked, and at a distance they look like substantial low hills. Their summits are blown up and curved like waves by the action of the periodical westerly winds. They are sparsely clothed with stunted shrubs and tufts of coarse grass in the dry season, and the light rains cover them with vegetation. The villages within the desert, though always known by a local name, cannot be reckoned as fixed habitations, for their permanence depends entirely on the supply of water in the wells, which is constantly failing or turning brackish; and so soon as the water gives out, the village must shift. A little water is collected in small tanks or pools, which become dry before the stress of the heat begins; and in places there are long marshes impregnated with salt. This is the character, with more or less variation, of the whole north and north-west of Rájputána. The cultivation is everywhere poor and precarious, though certain parts have a better soil than others, and some tracts are comparatively productive. Nevertheless, the principal towns within this region are well built and fairly prosperous; they have for ages managed the traffic across the desert, and their position has given them immunity from predatory armies.

In the central midland part of Rájputána, the Aravalli Mountains lose the character of a distinct range; and north-eastward from this region they never altogether re-unite, though their general direction is clearly indicated by successive hills and rocky eminences as far as the group of hills near Khetri. Amid these disunited hills stands the town of Ajmere, on the highest level of an open tableland spreading eastward towards Jáipur, and sloping on all sides. From Abu to Ajmere, the Aravallis offer a fairly clear line of demarcation between the sandy inferior land of the north-west, and the more fertile districts of the south-east; but beyond Ajmere the contrast is no longer so plainly marked.

The south-eastern division of Rájputána, which is considerably smaller in extent than the other, consists of the higher and more fertile countries behind the Aravallis. This division may be circumscribed

by a line starting from the south-western extremity of that range, and sweeping round first south-eastward, then eastward along the northern frontiers of Guzerat and Málwá. Where it meets Gwalior territory, the border-line turns northward, and eventually runs along the Chambal, until that river enters the British dominions. It then skirts the British possessions in the basin of the Jumna as it goes northward, past Agra and Muttra, up to the neighbourhood of Delhi. In contrast to the sandy plains, which are the uniform feature, more or less modified, of the north-west, this south-eastern division has a very diversified character. It contains extensive hill ranges, and long stretches of rocky wold and woodland. It is traversed by considerable rivers, and in many parts there are wide vales, fertile tablelands, and breadths of excellent soil. Behind the loftiest and most clearly defined section of the Aravallis, which runs between Abu and Ajmere, lies the Mewár country, occupying all the eastern flank of the range, at a level 800 or 900 feet higher than the plains on the west. And whereas the descent of the western slopes is abrupt towards Márwár (or the Jodhpur country), on the eastern or Mewár side the land falls very gradually as it recedes from the long parallel ridges which mark the water-parting, through a country full of high hills and deep gullies, much broken up by irregular rocky eminences, until it spreads out into the open champaign of the centre of Mewár. Towards the south-western corner of Mewár, the broken country behind the Aravallis is prolonged farthest into the interior; and hereabout the outskirts of the main range do not soften down into level tracts, but become entangled in a confused network of outlying hills and valleys, covered for the most part with thick jungle, which forms that very peculiar region known to British political administration as the Hilly Tracts of Mewár.

All the south-east of Rájputána is watered by the drainage of the Vindhyá Mountains, carried north-eastward by the Banás and Chambal rivers. North of Jhálra Patan, the country on the eastern side of the territory rises to a remarkable plateau called the Pátar, upon which lies all Kotah State, with parts of Búndi on the north and of Jháláwár on the south. Eastward, this plateau falls, by a very gradual descent, to the Gwalior country, and the basin of the Betwa river. Beyond the Pátar, to the north-east of the junction of the Banás and Chambal, there is a very rugged and hilly region along the frontier line of the Chambal in Karauli State; and farther northward, the country opens out towards Bhartpur territory, whose flat plains belong to the alluvial basin of the Jumna.

Rivers and Water System.—In the north-west division of Rájputána, the only river of importance is the Loni, which rises in the Pukar valley close to Ajmere, and runs south-west for about 200 miles into the Rann of Cutch. It receives and cuts off from the western plains all

the drainage brought by the mountain torrents down the western slopes of the Aravallis between Ajmere and Abu. Running for the most part over a sandy bed between low banks, its waters are brackish, and the bed occasionally yields salt—hence its name, meaning 'the salt river.' When very heavy rain falls, the Loni overflows its banks to a breadth of some 5 miles, leaving as it recedes a rich alluvium, which gives excellent crops.

North-west of the Loni, there are no perennial streams in the country; and the north-east of Rájputána has hardly one worth mentioning, nor does any water penetrate from this region eastward into the Jumna water system, until we turn as far south as the Bánganga river, which runs out through Bhartpur. The high watershed of the midland country about Ajmere and Jáipur sends all its appreciable contributions of water southward into the Banás.

The south-eastern division of Rájputána has a river system of importance. The Chambal flows through the territory for about one-third of its course, and forms its boundary for another third. It enters Rájputána at Chaurásgarh, on the south-east border of Mewár, where the old fort of that name stands 300 feet above the stream, and the stream level is 1166 feet above the sea, the width of the bed being about 1000 yards. Thirty miles lower down, at Bhainsrorgarh, it meets the Bámní river, at an elevation of 1009 feet above the sea. Just above this place occurs the series of small cataracts locally known as Chulis, of which the total fall is about 80 feet. In its course through Kotah the Chambal receives several large streams flowing northward from the Vindhyás, and so much of the drainage of the Mewár plateau as is not intercepted by the Banás. Farther northward it receives its two principal tributaries, the Párbatí from the right and the Banás from the left. It emerges into the open country near Dholpur, and finally discharges itself into the Jumna after a total course of about 560 miles.

The Banás, which is next in importance to the Chambal, rises in the south-west, near Kankraoli in Mewár. It collects nearly all the drainage of the Mewár plateau, with that of the south-eastern slopes and hill tracts of the Aravallis. It joins the Chambal a little beyond the north-eastern extremity of Búndi State, after a course of about 300 miles.

Among the south-western hills of Mewár, the Western Banás and the Sabarmati take their rise, but attain no size or importance until after passing the Rájputána frontier towards the south-west.

The Máhi, a considerable river in Guzerat, runs for some distance through the territories of Partábgarh and Bánswára, but it neither begins nor ends in Rájputána. Its chief tributary in this part is the Som, which flows first east and then southward through Mewár. These rivers carry off the drainage of the south-west corner of Rájputána into the Gulfs of Cutch and Cambay.

Rájputána has no natural fresh-water lakes, the only considerable basin being the well-known salt lake at SAMBHAR. There are some fine artificial lakes in Mewár State; the largest are those near Debar and Kankraoli, of which the former is a noble sheet of water, some 25 or 30 miles in circumference, constructed in 1681 A.D. by Ráná Jái Sinh, and named from him the 'Jái Samand.' There are also artificial lakes in the Eastern States, about Búndi and Kotah, and in the British District of Ajmere.

Geology.—Rájputána may be divided into three geological regions—a central, and the largest, comprising the whole width of the Aravalli system, formed of very old sub-metamorphic and gneissic rocks; an eastern region, with sharply defined boundary, along which the most ancient formations are abruptly replaced by the great basin of Vindhyán strata, or are overlaid by the still more extensive spread of the Deccan trap, forming the plateau of Málwá; and a western region, of very ill-defined margin, in which, besides some rocks of undetermined age, it is known or suspected that tertiary and secondary strata stretch across from Sind, beneath the sands of the desert, towards the flanks of the Aravallis.

Compared with many parts of peninsular India, Rájputána may be considered rich, if not in the quantity, at least in the variety, of metals it produces. Ore of cobalt has not been obtained from any other locality in India; and although zinc blend is found elsewhere, Rájputána is the only part of the country in which zinc is known to have been extracted. Copper and lead exist in several parts of the Aravalli range, and in the minor ridges of Ulwur and Shaikhawati; and iron ores abound in Ulwur, Mewár, Kotah, and Jháláwár.

Unfortunately very little has yet been ascertained in detail about this great mineral wealth, or as to the probable increase in yield that might be obtained from improved processes of mining. The most important copper-mines are those near Khetri in the Shaikhawati District of Jáipur; and here some of the hills are honeycombed with the old excavations, whilst the accumulations of slag from the furnaces form a range of huge hillocks. In 1830, the annual out-turn of lead from the mines near Ajmere is said to have been about 850 cwts. At Jawar, south of Udáipur, considerable quantities of zinc were formerly obtained; in Tod's *Rájásthán*, the mines are said to have yielded £22,200 a year, but this is probably an exaggeration. These mines were abandoned in consequence of a famine in 1812-13, and they have not been re-opened. Large deposits of specular and magnetic iron-ore (hematite) occur in several places in the Aravalli rocks, and are worked on a small scale to supply native furnaces. Nickel has been found in iron made from the Bhángarh ore. Alum and blue vitriol (sulphate of copper) are manufactured from decomposed schists at Khetri in Shaikhawati.

The only known Indian ore of cobalt is a grey metallic substance known as *sehta*, occurring in small cubes mixed with pyrrhotite (magnetic iron pyrites) in the copper mines of Khetri (Shaikhawati). The composition of this mineral, which has received the name of Jyepoorite (wrongly written Syepoorite in most books), is still imperfectly ascertained. It was at first supposed to be a simple sulphide of cobalt, but subsequent examination has rendered it probable that antimony and arsenic are also contained in the mineral. The ore was formerly extensively used for colouring enamels, bangles, etc., of a blue colour, and, it is said, for giving a rose colour to gold—an art unknown in Europe, and deserving of further inquiry.

The rocks of Rájputána are rich in good building materials. Two of its forms of limestone—(1) the Raialo limestone, a fine-grained crystalline marble, quarried at Raialo in Ulwur, and at Makrána in Jodhpur; and (2) the Jáisalmír limestone—are well known for their beauty and usefulness. The Makrána quarries supplied the chief portion of the stone for building the Táj at Agra, as well as the marble used in decorating many other buildings in Northern and North-Western India. About 1000 workmen are employed at the present day in quarrying and working the stone at Makrána alone.

The sources of the salt for which Rájputána is celebrated are practically confined to that tract which lies north of the Aravallis. (*See* SAMBHAR LAKE.)

History.—As of other parts of India, the history of Rájputána before the advent of the Muhammadans is very obscure, and its materials are scanty. Only faint outlines can be traced of the condition of the country; and these indicate that it was subject for the most part to two or three powerful tribal dynasties. The Rahtors, whose seat of dominion was at Kanauj, were for a long time the family whose rule was strongest and most widely extended; whilst much of South-West Rájputána was ruled by a dynasty whose headquarters were in Guzerat. With these, and in succession to them, other tribal dynasties arose. In the 11th century, at the time of the conquests of Mahmúd of Ghazní, the leading tribes were the Solankhyas of Anhilwára in Guzerat, the Chauháns of Ajmere, and the Rahtors of Kanauj; whilst the Gehlot clan had established itself in Mewár or Udáipur (still occupied by the Sesodiás, a sept of the Gehlots), and the Kachwáha clan occupied the eastern tracts about Jáipur, now their chief's capital.

The march of Mahmúd's victorious army across the Rájput countries, though it temporarily overcame the Solankhyas, left no permanent impression on the clans. The latter were, however, seriously weakened by the famous feuds between the Solankhyas and the Chauháns, and between the latter and the Rahtors of Kanauj, which give such a

romantic colour to the traditions of the latter part of the 12th century. Nevertheless, when Shaháb-ud-dín began his invasions, the Chauháns fought hard before they were driven out of Ajmere and Delhi in 1193 A.D.; and Kanauj was not taken till the following year. Kutab-ud-dín garrisoned Ajmere and Anhilwára; and the Musalmáns appear gradually to have overawed, if they did not entirely reduce, the open country. They secured the natural outlets of Rájputána, towards Guzerat on the south-west, and towards the valley of the Jumna on the north-east; and the effect was probably to press back the clans into the outlying Districts, where a more difficult and less inviting country afforded a second line of defence against the foreigner—a line which they have held successfully up to the present day. Indeed (setting aside for the present the two Ját States of Bhartpur and Dholpur, and the Muhammadan Principality of Tonk), Rájputána may be described as the region within which the pure-blooded Rájput clans have maintained a sort of independence under their own chieftains, and have kept together their primitive societies ever since their principal dynasties in Northern India were cast down and swept away by the Musalmán irruptions. And the existing capitals of the modern States indicate the positions to which the earlier chiefs retreated. Thus, one clan (the Bháttis) had at an early period founded Jáisalmír in the extreme north-west, having been driven across the Sutlej by the Ghaznevide conquerors; the Rahtors settled down among the sands of Márwár or Jodhpur; the Sesodiás pushed inward from north-east and south-west, concentrating on the Mewár plateau behind the scarps of the Aravallis; while the Jáduns were protected by the hills and ravines that lie along the Chambal.

The process by which the Rájput clans were gradually shut up within the natural barrier of difficult country, which still more or less marks off their possessions, continued with varying fortune—their frontiers now receding, now again advancing a little—until the end of the 15th century. Early in the 13th century, the rich southern Province of Málwá was attached by the Musalmáns to the Delhi Empire; and at the beginning of the 14th century, Alá-ud-dín Khiljí finally exterminated the Rájput dynasties in Guzerat, which also became an imperial Province. When at length, with the decline of the Tughlak dynasty, independent Muhammadan kingdoms arose in Málwá and Guzerat, these powers proved more formidable to the Rájputs than even the Delhi Empire had been; and throughout the 15th century, there was war between them and the clans.

For a short interval, at the beginning of the 16th century, came a brilliant revival of Rájput strength. The last Afghán dynasty at Delhi was breaking up, and Málwá and Guzerat were at war with each other, when there arose the famous Ráná Sanga of Mewár, the Chief of the

Sesodiá clan. The talents and valour of this chief once more obtained for his race something like predominance in Central India. Aided by Medni Ráo, Chief of Chánderi, he fought with distinguished success against both Málwá and Guzerat. In 1519, he captured the Musalmán King of Málwá; and in 1526, in alliance with Guzerat, he totally subdued the Málwá State, and annexed to his own dominion all the fine eastern Provinces of that kingdom, and recovered the strong places of the Eastern Marches. This was the time at which the power of the Rájputs was at its zenith, for Ráná Sanga was now not merely the chief of a clan, but the king of a country. The Rájput revival was, however, as short-lived as it was brilliant. A month before the capture of the capital of Málwá, Bábar, with his Mughals, had taken Delhi; and in 1527, Ráná Sanga, at the head of all the chivalry of the clans, encountered the invader at Fatehpur Sikri, when his army was utterly defeated after desperate fighting, and the Rájput power hopelessly shattered. Next year, Medni Ráo, with the flower of his clan, fell in the defence of Chánderi, which was sacked by Bábar. The hegemony of the Rájputs, which passed to Máldeo Ráo, the Rahtor Chief of Jodhpur, was no longer that of a victorious empire. The clans, harassed first by the attacks of the Musalmán King of Guzerat, then by the Afghán Sher Sháh of Delhi, were finally either conquered, overawed, or conciliated by the genius of the great Akbar—all but the distant Sesodiá clan, which, however, submitted to Jahángír in 1616.

Akbar took to wife the daughters of two great Rájput houses. He gave the chiefs or their brethren high rank in his armies, sent them with their contingents to command on distant frontiers, and succeeded in enlisting the Rájputs generally. Under the early Mughal Emperors, the chiefs constantly entered the imperial service as governors or generals — there were at one time 47 Rájput contingents — and the headlong charges of their cavalry became famous in the wars of the empire. Jahángir and Sháh Jahán were sons of Rájput mothers; and Sháh Jahán in exile was protected at Udáipur up to the time of his accession. Thus, whereas up to the time of Akbar, the Rájput clans had to a certain extent maintained their political isolation, though within limits that were always changing, from the end of the 16th century their chiefs became feudatories of the Empire—which is their natural and honourable relation to the paramount power in India.

In the family wars which resulted in the accession of Aurangzeb, the Rájputs were generally found on the side of their unfortunate kinsman Dárá; still, even Aurangzeb employed them in distant wars, and their contingents did duty at his capital. He was, however, too bigoted to retain undiminished the hold on them acquired by Akbar. Though one Rájput chief governed Kábul for him, while another commanded his armies in the Deccan, he is said to have had them both poisoned.

Towards the end of his reign, he made bitter, though unsuccessful, war upon the Sesodiás, and devastated parts of Rájputána; but he was very roughly handled by the united Rahtors and Sesodiás, and he had thoroughly alienated the clans before he died.

If we except Aurangzeb's impotent invasion, it may be affirmed that, from Akbar's settlement of Rájputána up to the middle of the 18th century, the Rájput clans did all their serious warfare under the imperial banner in foreign wars, or in the battles between competitors for the throne of Delhi. When Aurangzeb died, the clans took sides as usual; and Sháh Alam, the son of a Rájput mother, was largely indebted for his success to the swords of his kinsmen. The obligations of allegiance, tribute, and military service to the Emperor, were undoubtedly recognised as defining the political status of the Chief so long as an Emperor existed who could exact them. After the death of Aurangzeb, the Rájputs vainly attempted the formation of an independent league for their own defence, in the shape of a triple alliance between the three leading clans—the Sesodiá, the Rahtor, and the Kachwáha; and this compact was renewed when Nádír Sháh threw all Northern India into confusion. But the treaty contained a stipulation, that in the succession to the Rahtor and Kachwáha chiefships, the sons born of a wife from the Sesodiás should have preference over all others; and this invidious preference was the fruitful source of disputes which soon split up the federation.

About 1756 A.D., the Marhattás got possession of Ajmere, being called in by one of the Rahtor factions; and from this time Rájputána became involved in the general disorganization of India. The primitive constitution of the clans rendered them quite unfit to resist the professional armies of Marhattás and Patháns; and the Rájput States very nearly went down with the sinking Empire. The utter weakness of some of the chiefs, and the general disorder following the disappearance of a paramount authority in India, dislocated the tribal sovereignties, and encouraged the building of strongholds against predatory bands, the rallying of parties round petty leaders, and all the general symptoms of civil confusion. From dismemberment among rival adventurers, the States were rescued by the appearance of the English on the political stage of Northern India.

In 1803, all Rájputána, except the remote States of the north-west, had been virtually brought under the Marhattás, who exacted tribute, held cities to ransom, annexed territory, and extorted subsidies. Sindhia and Holkar were deliberately exhausting the country, lacerating it by ravages, or bleeding it scientifically by relentless tax-gatherers; while the fields had been desolated by thirty years' incessant war. Under this treatment, the whole group of ancient chieftainships was verging towards collapse; when Lord Wellesley struck in for the English

interest. The victories of Generals Wellesley and Lake permanently crippled Sindhia's power in Northern India, and forced him to loosen his hold on the Rájput States in the north-east, with whom the English made a treaty of alliance against the Marhattás; Holkar, too, after various turns of fortune, was compelled in 1805 to sign a treaty which stripped him of some of his annexations in Rájputána. Upon Lord Wellesley's departure from India, the chiefs of Central India and Rájputána were left to take care of themselves, and the consequence was that the great predatory leaders plundered at their ease the States thus abandoned to them, and became arrogant and aggressive towards the British power. This lasted for about ten years, and Rájputána was desolated during the interval. The roving bands increased and multiplied all over the country into Pindári hordes, until in 1814 Amír Khán was living at free quarters in the heart of the Rájput States, with an army estimated at 30,000 horse and foot, and a strong force of artillery. The two principal Rájput chieftainships of Jodhpur and Jáipur had brought themselves to the brink of extinction by the famous feud between the two rulers for the hand of a princess of Udáipur; while the plundering Marhattás and Patháns encouraged and strenuously aided the two chiefs to ruin each other, until the dispute was compromised upon the basis of poisoning the girl. In 1811, Sir Charles Metcalfe, Resident at Delhi, reported that the minor chiefs urgently pressed for British intervention, on the ground that they had a right to the protection of the paramount power, whose obvious business it was to maintain order. At length, in 1817, the Marquis of Hastings was at last able to carry into action his plan for breaking up the Pindári camps, extinguishing the predatory system, and making political arrangements that should effectually prevent its revival. Lawless banditti were to be put down, the general scramble for territory was to be ended by recognising lawful governments once for all, and fixing their possessions, and by according to each recognised State British protection and territorial guarantee, upon conditions of acknowledging our right of arbitration and general supremacy in external disputes and political relations. Accordingly, the Pindáris were put down, Amír Khán submitting and signing a treaty which constituted him the first ruler of the existing State of Tonk. By the end of 1818, all the Rájput States had executed treaties with the paramount power. There was a great restoration of plundered Districts and rectification of boundaries. Sindhia gave up the District of Ajmere to the British, and the pressure of the great Marhattá powers upon Rájputána was permanently withdrawn.

Since then, the political history of Rájputána has been comparatively uneventful. The great storm of the mutinies of 1857, though dangerous while it lasted, was short. The capture of the town of

Kotah, which had been held by the mutineers of that State, in March 1858, marked the extinction of armed rebellion in the Province. The only serious disorders in Rájputána had been caused by mutinous mercenaries in the service either of the British Government or of the chiefs. There was no question of internal treason, or of plots for the subversion of chiefs or dynasties; and the country at large probably suffered little.

Population.—It is very difficult to give any concise account that shall be fairly accurate of the divisions of the population over a wide extent of country, especially where statistics are almost entirely wanting; but the outline is something in the following way. In the Rájput States, the pure Rájput clans occupy the first rank; though by rigid precedence it would be taken by the Bráhmans, who are numerous and influential. The Rájputs nowhere form a majority of the population; they are strongest, numerically, in the northern States and in Mewár. With the Bráhmans may be classed the peculiar and important caste of Chárans or Bháts, the keepers of secular tradition and of the genealogies. Next in order follow the mercantile castes, mostly belonging to the Jaina sect, some of them undoubtedly of Rájput extraction, though separated by difference of profession and of worship from the clans. Then come the principal cultivating tribes, such as the Játs and Gújars. After these may be mentioned the tribes of uncertain origin peculiar to Central India, who occupy the outlying tracts and the skirts of the open country, of whom the Mínas and Mhairs are the best specimens. Most of these claim irregular descent by half-blood from Rájputs, while some of them are closely connected with the Bhíls; and they shade off, according as they are more or less settled down to cultivation and a quiet life, from industrious agriculturists into predatory tribal communities. The Meos (now converts to Islám), the Mhairs, and the Mínas are evidently allied tribes, whether by similarity of origin and way of life, or by remote descent from the same stock, is uncertain. Some reasons have been given for tracing the earliest habitations of the Mínas and Mhairs to the Indus valley and the Upper Punjab, and the Mhairs have been conjectured to be a relic of the Meds, an Indo-Scythian tribe that crossed into India from Central Asia. Lastly, there are non-Aryan groups of pure Bhíls, inhabiting long stretches of wild and hilly tracts, where they live almost independent, holding together under their own petty chiefs and head-men, paying irregular tribute or rents to the chief of the State, or to the Rájput landowner upon whose estate they may be settled. There are also, of course, a good number of Bhíls, as of all other half-tamed tribes, who have mixed with the general population, and are to be found scattered among the villages on the outskirts of the wild country.

The geographical distribution of the Rájput clans is broadly as follows:—The Rahtors are probably the most numerous of all the

clans; they greatly predominate in the north-west, in the country of Márwár, Bíkaner, and Jáisalmír, in the State of Kishengarh, and all about the central District of Ajmere. In Jáisalmír, the Bháttis rule. In the north-east States is the Kachwáha clan, very strong in Ulwur and in Jáipur; some Districts in the north of Jáipur being altogether in the hands of the Shaikhawat sept of the Kachwáhas. The Chauháns, once famous in the history of the north-west of India, are now most influential in the eastern States, where the Hára sept has been long dominant; and the Deoras, another sept of the Chauháns, still hold Sirohi, while the Khíchis also belong to the same stock. In the north-west, the last trace of the ancient predominance of the Chauháns at Delhi is to be found in the petty chiefship of Nimrána, held by Chauháns who claim descent from Prithwi Ráj; and in the extreme north-west, the Ráo of Kusalgarh in Bánswára is the head of a Chauhán colony. All over Mewár and the north-western States of Rájputána, below the Aravallis, the Sesodiá clan predominates, their head being the Mahárání of Udáipur, the eldest family of the purest blood of the whole Rájput caste. Among other clans of high descent and historic celebrity which were once powerful, but have now dwindled in numbers and lost their dominion, may be named the Parihár, the Pramára, and the Solankhya.

The clans are, of course, the aristocracy of the country; and they hold the land to a very large extent either as receivers of rent or as cultivators. As united families of pure descent, as a landed nobility, and as the kinsmen of ruling chiefs, they are also the aristocracy of India; and their social prestige may be measured by observing that there is hardly a ruling family (as distinguished from a caste) in all India which does not claim descent from, or irregular connection with, one of these Rájput stocks. The Rájput proper is very proud of his warlike reputation, and most punctilious on points of etiquette. The tradition of common ancestry has preserved among them the feeling which permits a poor Rájput yeoman to hold himself as good a gentleman as the most powerful landholder. As noticed further on (see *Land Tenures*), primogeniture prevails almost universally, with but two remarkable exceptions. The marriage customs are strictly exogamous, a marriage within the clan being regarded as incestuous; thus, each clan depends on the other clans for its wives, for, of course, no Rájput can take a wife elsewhere than from Rájputs.

The mercantile classes are strongest in the cities of the north, where are the homes of almost all the petty bankers and traders who have spread over Central and Western India under the name of Márwárís. Perhaps the Oswal section of the Jains, which had its beginning in Rájputána, is the wealthiest among the merchants; and many of the hereditary officials belong to the commercial castes.

Of the cultivating tribes not belonging to pure Rájput clans, the

principal are the Játs and Gújars, north of the Aravallis, and along the borders towards the Punjab and the Jumna, from Bíkaner round to Bhartpur, and in Jáipur. The Ahírs, Lodas, Káchís, Mális, and Chamárs also cultivate widely in the eastern Districts. South of the Aravallis, we find the Kumbis and Sondias as cultivators, immigrants from Central and Southern India; and in the south-west corner, we meet with the Kolis, so common in Guzerat.

Muhammadans are numerous in the north-eastern and eastern States; and also in Ajmere, where is the shrine of one of the most famous Musalmán saints in India. In the pure Hindu States of the west and south-west they are rare, perhaps rarest in Mewár; but in Márwár they have been from time to time influential. The special feature of Islám in Rájputána is to be found in the clans or indigenous tribes who have been converted to the faith; such are the Khánzádahs in Ulwur (Alwar) and North Jáipur, the Kháimkhánis in the same neighbourhood, and the Meos who are an indigenous tribe very strong in Ulwur and Bhartpur. The Meráts are the Musalmán section of the Mhairs in Mhairwára; the Sodhas are a Musalmán tribe of Rájput descent in the far west, towards the borders of Upper Sind. The peculiarity of these indigenous Muhammadan bodies is that, while the ritual of Islám has been more or less successfully imposed upon them, they have maintained in structure the social institutions of a Hindu clan or family, and that the tribes especially have continued to regulate their marriages, not by the law of Islám, but by their own rules of genealogy and consanguinity. Up to very recently, their worship was very polytheistic, and their primitive gods survived under various disguises.

One special element in the Rájputána population is that of the half-blood tribes. They are so called in this brief account of the different classes of the people, because they themselves invariably claim descent from the pure Rájput clans by irregular marriages, and because their own society is framed on the model of the Rájput clan, while there is every probability that they really derive largely from a crossing between the Rájputs and the more primitive tribes whom the Rájputs overcame and superseded. As a body, however, these tribes seem to be mixed aggregations of all sorts of persons who have taken to an independent and predatory life in the wilder parts of the country. Of these tribes, the most important is that of the Mínas, who inhabit several distinct tracts in different parts of Rájputána, and are also found sparsely scattered among the population in the neighbourhood of those tracts. The Mhairs form another tribe of mixed origin, claiming descent from Rájput chiefs who took Mína wives; and with the Mínas they are evidently connected.

There is a widely-spread tribe of professional thieves, which is by origin evidently nothing but an association for the purpose of robbery,

and as yet lays little claim to any common descent, though it is, in a loose way, a distinct caste. These people are called Baorias north of the Aravallis, and Moghyas south of the range, but they are understood to be one tribe under two names.

The only tribe in Rájputána that may be termed aboriginal is that of the Bhíls.

The towns of Rájputána have their special characteristics. The largest are the capitals of the principal States, which have usually grown up around the forts of the chiefs, in situations that, originally chosen for defence or retreat, are now striking and often picturesque. The Rájput capital is nearly always named after its founder. Its citadel is usually on a hill close above, or placed in some commanding position over against the town; and the chief's ancestral palace is sometimes within the fortified lines, sometimes lying below the stronghold, with ready access to it in case of need; while, here and there, a modern palace has been built apart from the fortress within the town. But the fortress and the palace, whether combined or separate, are the two conspicuous features of a Rájput town. The suburbs often contain gardens and stone pavilions, while country houses of the chiefs and nobles lie a little beyond; and the *chattris*, or domed cenotaphs erected where chiefs or men of mark have been burnt after death, often with their wives and female slaves, are usually at a little distance. Jáipur, the most modern of the Rájput capitals, is also the largest; it is laid out with spacious streets, and the hereditary taste of the ruling family has decorated and improved it for generations. Jodhpur is a fenced city in the desert; and Bíkaner and Jáisalmír are towns of the same type, built upon islands of hard rock amid deep sand. Ajmere, Ulwur (Alwar), and Udáipur are all remarkable for picturesque beauty and for excellence of situation. Bhartpur, Tonk, Kotah, Búndi, and Jhálra Patan are the other important places. The forts and castles of Rájputána are numerous, and often exhibit the best specimens of the architecture of this part of India. The most remarkable are Tárágarh above Ajmere, Chitor, Kumalmer, and Gogunda in Mewár, Ulwur (Alwar), Jáipur, Khetri, Bhainsrorgarh, Mandalgarh, Indragarh, Jáisalmír, Bíkaner, Jodhpur, Búndi, Kotah, Gagron, and Rinthambor.

Religious Sects.—The vast majority of the population are Hindus, with a very strong infusion of Jainism. The Rájputs, though superstitious, are not remarkable either for devotion or for fastidiousness about caste rules and sacred personages. Of local sects most in vogue, may be mentioned the Dádu Panthis, whose headquarters are in Jáipur State, to whom belong the armed Nágas; and the Rám Sneh sect, which prevails in Ulwur (Alwar) and Mewár, with its headquarters at Sháhpurá. Astrology is universally practised; and a professor of the

occult art must be consulted at all critical conjunctures, political or social.

Agriculture.—Westward of the Aravallis, there is a good strip of soil along the banks of the Luni; which occasionally overflows, and on the subsidence of the waters an alluvial deposit remains which yields good crops of barley and of wheat. Excluding the fertile portions of Márwár enclosed within the branches of the Luni, nearly the whole country to the north-west of this river, including most of Márwár, the States of Bíkaner and Jáisalmír, and the District of Shaikhawati, is a vast sandy tract. Water is far from the surface, and scarce. Irrigation from wells is impracticable, for not only is the supply of water too scanty to admit of it being used for this purpose, but also the depth of the wells usually exceeds 75 feet, the maximum at which well-irrigation has been found profitable in Jáisalmír and Bíkaner. The water in the wells is often from 300 to 500 feet below the surface. The people have thus to depend for their supply of grain entirely on the produce of the crops sown in the rainy season, which, in this part of the country, is of very uncertain character. When rain does fall, it sinks into the sandy soil and does not flow off the surface, so that a very light rainfall suffices for the crops. The system of agriculture is simple, and only one crop is raised in the year. At the commencement of the rainy season, the sandhills are ploughed up by camels, and the seed is then planted very deep. After it has sprouted, a few showers bring the young crop to maturity. As the light camels of the desert are quick movers, and the ploughs are of trifling weight, each cultivator is able to put a large extent of ground under crop. The produce in a favourable season is much more than is necessary for the wants of the population; but, unfortunately, the means of stowing grain are not easily procurable, burnt earthen vessels for the purpose having to be brought from long distances; consequently, the surplus produce is often left on the ground to be eaten by cattle. The *karbi*, or *bájra* stalks, which make excellent fodder, are little needed in good seasons when rich grass is plentiful; and, generally speaking, neither *karbi* nor grass is cut or stacked as a stand-by for bad seasons. *Bájra* and *moth* are the only crops which are grown in the desert tracts. The former is planted as early as possible, even in May, if any rain fall in that month; the latter in August. The former takes three months, the latter six weeks, to ripen. Besides these cereals, large quantities of melons spring up, of which the Bíkaner melon is famous. These supply food for a considerable portion of the year, and, when abundant, are allowed to be plucked by any passer-by. Cattle, even, are allowed to feed on them. The seeds are dried and ground, and eaten with flour.

The main wealth of the desert lands of Márwár and Bíkaner consists in the vast herds of camels, horned cattle, and sheep which roam over

their sandy wastes and thrive admirably in the dry climate. Camels and cattle are bred in such numbers that they supply the neighbouring Provinces. What are called and sold as Guzerat cattle are often in reality Márwár cattle of the celebrated Nagar breed. The stock is yearly sold at great fairs. In Western Rájputána, camels are also bred in large quantities; and besides being ridden, and used as beasts of burden, they are employed in agriculture. The sheep of Márwár and Bíkaner are exported in great numbers to Bombay and other markets.

In other parts of Rájputána, south and east of the Aravallis, two crops are raised annually, and various kinds of cereals, pulses, and fibres are grown. The principal crops in the hilly tracts of Mewár, and in Dungarpur and Bánswára, are Indian corn and oil-seeds for the *kharíf*, and grain, barley, and wheat for the *rabí* harvest. On the plateau near Nímach in the State of Partábgarh, the chief crops are *joár* for the *kharíf*, and opium, wheat, and *ál* for the *rabí*. The staple produce of Jháláwár is opium. Kotah is a grain-producing Province, in which artificial irrigation scarcely exists; the soil being black mould (the disintegrated trap) is retentive of moisture, and large quantities of wheat are grown for the spring harvest, and *joár* for the autumn harvest. The extensive plains of the Mewár plateau are fertile when irrigated; almost every village has its artificial lake or tank. Behind the retaining embankments, or in the beds of these tanks, and wherever there are wells, large crops of wheat are grown, and here and there cotton, opium, and sugar-cane. To the east of Ajmere, including Kishengarh, the southern half of Jáipur, Tonk, and Ulwur (Alwar) as far as Bhartpur, the soil is fertile though light, and produces crops of wheat, barley, cotton, *joár*, and opium. The District of Shaikhawati in Jáipur resembles in character of soil and productions the deserts of the west. Much of Dholpur possesses the physical characteristics of Karauli—rocky hills and ravines. Where they exist, cultivation is much straitened; but elsewhere in these States, the crops grown are the same as those of the neighbouring Provinces to the west.

Land Tenures.—The characteristic of land tenures in the Rájput States proper, in the west and south-west particularly, is that a very great proportion of the land is held on freehold tenure by the kinsmen of the chief, and by other clans of Rájputs. The word 'freehold' is here used to denote the holding of a free man by service not unbecoming his birth, and upon payment of the customary share of the produce of the soil in which chief and clan are coparceners—the 'fruits of worship,' as it is devoutly expressed.

There are also, here and there, some assignments or grants of land in the nature of *jágírs* proper,—that is, the revenue has been allotted to certain persons as a convenient way of paying the estimated cost of civil

or military establishment or other services. All large estates are held under the implied condition of keeping up the police within their borders, protecting traffic, preventing heinous crimes, and pursuing offenders hot-foot when the hue and cry is raised, or when the tracks of flying brigands are followed across the boundaries. In some parts of the country, the estate passes entire to the eldest son, the rest being entitled only to maintenance; in other parts, the tendency to divide the land as the family increases and branches out is more marked; while in other parts, again, division among brothers is imperative. Of course, the partition of the freeholds is in proportion as the custom of subdividing the land among the clansmen may prevail. The freeholding classes are distinct from the mass of cultivating peasantry. The cultivating tenures of the peasantry at large are not easy to define accurately, though their general nature is much the same throughout Rájputána, both in the *khálsa* villages (paying directly to the State) and in the great feudatory estates. The cultivator is understood to have a permanent hereditary right to his holding so long as he pays the rent demanded, and to evict a man is a hard measure; but in a country where the irresponsible exactions of the tax-collectors are held in check only by the scarcity of tenants, the precise strength of the tenure depends really on the balance between these two opposing considerations, the desire to squeeze the tenant, and the fear of losing him. On the whole, it may be said that the demand for tenants predominates, and a good cultivator has a firm root in his fields, which can be mortgaged or sold, and which pass by inheritance. A distinction is recognised, naturally, between lands which have come to a cultivator by inheritance, or which he has himself cleared or improved, and lands which have changed hands recently, or which have been assigned in an ordinary farming-way. The real point of importance, however, is, of course, not the nature of tenure, but the limitation of rent demand; and this is practically unfixed, except where English officers have prevailed upon a chief to accept and uphold a regular land revenue settlement. In rack-renting States, all particular tenures are loose and undefined; and though the village community, as a body, generally sticks to the township, yet between the rent-collector and the money-lender, the peasant is apt to sink into the condition of a predial serf rather held to, than holding by, the land.

There are, speaking broadly, no middle-men in Rájputána between the tax-collector and the rent-payer, though the head-man of a village often contracts for a fixed payment for a short term of years. The *pátel* and *patwári* are merely the local agents in the villages for cultivating and collecting arrangements; they are paid by remissions of rent demand, but have no rights or solid status, and the village community, as an institution, is very feeble and depressed.

Industrial Occupations.—Whilst the mass of the people is occupied

in agriculture, in the large towns banking and commerce flourish to a degree beyond what would have been expected in so backward a country. In the north, the staple products for export are salt, grain, wool, and some cotton. In the south, the great article of export is opium, and secondly, cotton ; the imports consisting of sugar, hardware, piece-goods, and the usual miscellaneous articles needed by a country with no manufactures on any scale. Salt is made very extensively in Jodhpur and Jáipur from the great salt-lakes, which are the most valuable possessions of the northern States, and in Bhartpur from brine wells. From the great plains north of the Aravallis, especially from the Shaikhawati country, comes the wool ; and from these pasture lands a great many sheep are driven annually to Bombay. The cotton is grown in the midland and eastern Districts ; while the rich, well-watered black soils, which send opium to Málwá, are owned by Mewár and the south-eastern States, Kotah and Jháláwár in particular.

The headquarters of banking and exchange operations may be said to be Jáipur, the largest and richest city of Rájputána ; though the principal firms of Málwá and of the northern cities of British India have agencies in most of the towns. The employment of capital in Rájputána is becoming less productive, and is diminishing since the peculiar sources of profit formerly open have been disappearing. At the beginning of the present century, great firms often remitted goods or specie under the guard of armed companies in their own pay, and loans were made at heavy interest for the payment of armies or the maintenance of a Government. Now, railways and telegraphs are gradually levelling profits on exchange and transport of goods, while the greater prosperity and stability of the States, under the wing of the Empire, render them more and more independent of the financing bankers. Of course, there is an immense amount of money-lending to the peasantry.

The largest commercial fairs in the country are, for cattle, camels, and horses, at Pokar near Ajmere, and at Tilwára in Jodhpur State.

In manufactures, Rájputána has no speciality, unless the making of salt be included under this head. In Bíkaner, fine woollen cloth is woven, and leather-working is successfully carried on in most of the northern States. In the finer and more artistic manufactures, however, Rájputána takes a high place. The enamel-workers of Jáipur produce beautiful articles by a process of which the secret is unknown ; in Partábgarh, a peculiar enamel of gold is worked on glass ; while at Ulwur and some other capitals, the goldsmiths and silversmiths have acquired superior skill in workmanship and design, under the patronage of the Courts.

Climate and Hygiene.—The rainfall is very unequally distributed throughout Rájputána. The western side of the country comes very near the limits of that part of Asia which belongs to the 'rainless district of the world;' though even on this side, the south-west winds bring annually a little rain from the Indian Ocean. In Western Rájputána—that is, in Jáisalmír, Bíkaner, and the greater part of Márwár—the annual fall scarcely averages more than 5 inches, as the rain-clouds have to pass extensive and heated tracts of sand before reaching these plains, and are emptied of much of their moisture upon the high ranges in Káthiáwár and the nearer slopes of the Aravallis. In the south-west, which is more directly reached, and with less intermediate evaporation, by the periodical rains, the fall is much more copious; and at Abu it sometimes exceeds 100 inches. But except in these south-west highlands of the Aravallis, the rain is most abundant in the south-east of Rájputána. The southern States, from Bánswára to Jháláwár and Kotah, get not only the rains from the Indian Ocean, which sweep up the valleys of the Narbada and Mahi rivers across Málwá to the countries about the Chambal, but also the last of the rains which come up from the Bay of Bengal in the south-east; and this supply occasionally reaches all Mewár. In this part of the country, if the south-west rains fail early, the south-east rains usually come to the rescue later in the season; so that the country is never subjected to the extreme droughts of the north-western tracts. On the other hand, the northern part of Rájputána gets a scanty share of the winter rains of North India, while the southern part usually gets none at all, beyond a few soft showers about Christmas. In the central Districts, round Ajmere and towards Jáipur, the periodical supply of rain is very variable. If the eastern winds are strong, they bring good rains from the Bay of Bengal; whereas if the south-west monsoon prevails, the rain is comparatively late and light. Sometimes a good supply comes from both seas, and then the fall is larger than in the eastern Districts; but it is usually much less. In the far north of Rájputána, the wind must be very strong and the clouds very full to bring any appreciable supply from either direction.

It may be said shortly, that from Bíkaner and Jáisalmír in the north-west to Partábgarh and Kotah in the south-east, there is a very gradually increasing rainfall, from 5 to about 45 inches, the quantity increasing very rapidly after the Aravallis have been crossed. Statistics are neither very plentiful nor very trustworthy; but the subjoined table gives the average rainfall in recent years at certain places, which, being wide apart, may afford an indication of the state of the mountainous districts, and thus generally of the whole tract.

TABLE ILLUSTRATIVE OF THE RAINFALL OF RAJPUTANA, DIVIDED BY THE ARAVALLI HILLS INTO THREE SECTIONS.

Section of Country.		Sub-division.	Station.	Number of Years taken.	Last Year of Series.	Rainfall. Average. (Inches.)	Maximum.	Minimum.	
I.	Eastern or fertile	North .	Bhartpur. .	5	1876	32	44	13	
		South .	Jhálra Pátan	3	1876	40	50	25	
II.	Central or hilly	Central	Ajmere . .	11	1876	24	35	9	
		South .	Mewár . .	11	1876	23	43	12	
III.	Western or barren	North .	Bíkaner . .	4	1872, 1874, 1875, 1876	8	10	7	These averages are not reliable. The periods are too short, and some of the years were exceptional.
		South .	. . . . .	3	1872, 1875, 1876	20	25	14	
IV.	Exceptional elevation, 4000 feet	South .	Abu . . .	17	1876	68	123	31	

In the summer, the sun's heat is much the same all over the Province, being, except in the high hills, great everywhere; in the north-west, very great. Hot winds and dust-storms are experienced more or less throughout; in the sandy half-desert tracts of the north they are as violent as in any part of India, while in the southerly parts they are tempered by hills, verdure, and water. In the winter, the climate of the north is much colder than in the lower districts, with hard frost and ice on the Bíkaner borders; and from the great dryness of the atmosphere in these inland countries, the change of temperature between day and night is sudden, excessive, and very trying. The heat, thrown off rapidly by the sandy soil, passes freely through the dry air, so that at night water may freeze in a tent where the thermometer marked 90° F. during the day.

The influence of these climatic conditions upon the general health may be shortly noticed. We find an irregular, and in some parts a very scanty, rainfall; excessive dry heat during one season of the year, and great variation of temperature during another; vast sandy tracts in the north-west, an immense extent of salt deposit, and a water supply in parts very deficient, brackish, not good for drinking, and sometimes failing altogether. The epidemic diseases which might be expected, and which actually do prevail, are principally of the paroxysmal or malarious type. Cholera visitations occur most virulently in the eastern States; for the sparsely populated and semi-desert nature of the

western tracts, over which the winds travel freely, prevents the spread of cholera in that direction. The scanty and unwholesome nature of the water supply, and the comparative poorness of the grain—*bájra* (Holcus spicatus), which forms the staple food of the people in the north-west—give rise to many dyspeptic maladies, and also to skin diseases. But the most formidable enemies of human life in Northern Rájputána are the frequently recurring dearths caused by failure of the always uncertain rainfall, which periodically desolate the country. Within the last thirty years, two very serious famines—in 1848-49, and in 1868-69—have deeply affected the whole condition of the people; the second famine having been intensified by the ravages of locusts, which breed in the deserts by myriads.

Of vital statistics, there are yet none for Rájputána as a whole; though some records have been made in Ajmere which indicate a very low death-rate. Notwithstanding its many drawbacks, and excepting some towns urgently needing sanitary reforms, Rájputána may be reckoned one of the healthiest parts of India, at least for natives.

Rájsháhí.—A British District, occupying the south-western corner of the Rájsháhí with Kuch Behar Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 24° 3′ and 24° 59′ N. lat., and between 88° 20′ 45″ and 89° 23′ 30″ E. long., the Ganges river forming the continuous southern boundary. The area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878, was returned at 2234 square miles; and the population, according to the Census of 1872, was 1,310,729. Bounded north by Dinájpur and Bográ; east by Bográ and Pabná; south by the Ganges and Nadiyá District; and west by Maldah and Murshidábád. The administrative headquarters are at RAMPUR BEAULEAH on the Ganges, which is also the residence of the Commissioner of the Rájsháhí with Kuch Behar Division.

Physical Aspects.—The District presents the usual appearance of a recent deltaic formation, being one uniform alluvial plain, seamed with old river beds and studded with wide marshes. The general level of green paddy-fields is only broken by the raised village sites, and the groves of trees in which the villages are embowered. In the north-west, bordering on the Districts of Maldah and Dinájpur, is a small tract of comparatively undulating ground, where the soil is a stiff red clay and the low jungle of brushwood is yet unreclaimed. Towards the east, the marshes increase in number and size, until they merge in the great Chalan *bíl* on the District boundary.

The river system is composed of the network of streams and water-courses, which anticipate the confluence of the main channels of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. The Ganges itself only fringes the southern boundary of the District, from below its junction with the Mahánandá, which latter river also borders the District for a few miles. Its two

most important offshoots are the Narad and Barál, which finally mingle their waters with those of the Atrái. The chief representatives of the Brahmaputra system are the Atrái and Jamuná, both navigable throughout the year for small cargo boats. The drainage of Rájsháhí District is not carried off by means of its rivers, but through the chains of marshes and swamps, which lie for the most part below the level of the river banks. The Chalan *bíl* is, in fact, a great reservoir for the surplus water supply of the whole surrounding country. It has open connections with all the rivers and water-courses, which here lose their identity; and during the rains it swells till it covers a total area of about 120 square miles. The discharge is from the southern extremity into the Brahmaputra. No artificial canals are in existence in Rájsháhí, and none are needed. Embankments have been erected to protect the station of Rámpur Beauleah, which is exposed to the full force of the Ganges floods.

History.—Rájsháhí presents an admirable example of the process by which a native *zamíndárí* has been moulded into a British District. When the East India Company obtained possession of the *díwání* or financial administration of Bengal in 1765, the wealthiest landholder with whom they were brought into direct relations was the Bráhman Rájá of Náttor, Rámjan, the first of the present family. His official position was not of old standing, for it only dated from 1725; but the purity of his caste, his lavish charity, and the immense area of his revenue collections, caused him to be regarded as one of the first Hindus in the Province. His estate was known as Rájsháhí; and the same name was adopted for the British District, whose original boundaries were made conterminous with it. In those days, Rájsháhí seems to have extended from Bhágalpur on the west to Dacca on the east, and to have included a large subdivision called Níj Chaklá Rájsháhí, on the south bank of the Ganges, which stretched across Murshidábád and Nadiyá as far as the frontiers of Bírbhúm and Bardwán. The total area was estimated at 12,909 square miles, or about five times the size of the present District; and the land revenue was *sikká* Rs. 2,702,400, or £292,760. The territory is thus described by Mr. J. Grant, in his *Analysis of the Finances of Bengal*, dated 1786:—'Rájsháhí, the most unwieldy, extensive *zamíndárí* in Bengal, or perhaps in all India; intersected in its whole length by the great Ganges or its lesser branches, with many other navigable rivers and fertilizing waters; producing within the limits of its jurisdiction at least four-fifths of all the silk, raw or manufactured, used in or exported from the Empire of Hindustán, with a superabundance of all the other richest productions of nature and art to be found in the warmer climates of Asia, fit for commercial purposes; enclosing in its circuit, and benefited by the industry and population of, the overgrown capital of Murshidábád, the

principal factories of Kasímbázár, Beauleah, Kumár-khálí, etc.; and bordering on almost all the other great provincial cities, manufacturing towns, and public markets of the *subah* or Governorship.'

But the necessities of British administration soon introduced a series of changes, which led to the gradual breaking up of this great District. On the one hand, it was found that the power or the disposition of the Rájá was unequal to the duty of collecting promptly the land tax; and, on the other hand, the demands of civil and criminal justice became too pressing to be satisfied from a single judicial centre. The records of these early times are full of two classes of complaints, referring to constant arrears of revenue, and to the general disturbed condition of the country. Unfortunately, also, for the Náttor family, the estate fell at this time under the management of a woman, the celebrated Rání Bhawání, whose charitable grants of rent-free land permanently impoverished the ancestral possessions. The Government was compelled to take the collections out of her hands; and for a succession of years the *zamíndárí* was either held *khás*, *i.e.* under direct management, or farmed out to revenue contractors. At the Decennial Settlement in 1790, the adopted son of the Rání was permitted to engage for the whole District, at a permanent assessment of *sikká* Rs. 2,328,101, or £252,211. The strict regulations, however, which were then introduced for the recovery of revenue arrears by sale of the defaulter's estate, were constantly called into requisition against the Rájá. Portion after portion of his hereditary property was put up to auction, and knocked down either to strangers from Calcutta, or to the dependants whom his own laxity had enriched. At the present time, the Náttor family only ranks third or fourth in Rájsháhí in respect of wealth, while all the outlying estates have been irretrievably lost.

Meanwhile, a second set of circumstances was tending to dissolve the integrity of the original District. At first, the attempt was made to administer justice through a single Collector-Judge and Magistrate, with two Assistants, one stationed at Murádbágh near Murshidábád, and the other at the local capital of Náttor. The first change took place as early as 1793, when the extensive tract lying south of the Ganges was taken from the parent District, and divided among the adjoining jurisdictions of Murshidábád, Nadiyá, and Jessor. This transfer left to Rájsháhí the irregular triangle lying at the confluence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, with those two rivers as its natural boundaries. But complaints of the frequency of crime in parts remote from the central authority still continued to force themselves upon the notice of Government, and it was resolved that the admitted evil could only be remedied by the creation of new administrative Districts. In 1813, the present District of Maldah was constituted out of a neglected tract, towards which Rájsháhí, Dinájpur, and Purniah each contributed their share. Bográ

was formed in a similar manner in 1821; and in 1832, the limits of Rájsháhí were finally fixed very much at their present lines, by the erection of Pábná and the adjoining police circles into an independent jurisdiction. The only marks of its former pre-eminence that Rájsháhí now retains, are to be found in the fact that remote estates in other Districts still exercise the privilege of paying their land revenue into the parent treasury; and in the preservation of the old name for the Commissionership or Division of Rájsháhí with Kuch Behar.

People.—Various attempts were made in early times to estimate the population. In 1784, when the District was at its largest, the number was put at 2,000,000 souls; in 1801, after the separation of the trans-Gangetic tract, at 1,500,000. In 1834, when the size of the District was probably not very different from what it is at present, an official enumeration showed a total of 1,064,965; and a more exact Census two years later raised the number to 1,121,745. The Census of 1872, the only one that can be really trusted, disclosed a population of 1,310,729 persons, residing in 4228 *mauzás* or villages and in 246,371 houses. The area was taken at 2,234 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 587; villages per square mile, 1·89; houses per square mile, 110. The average number of persons per village is 310; of persons per house, 5·3. Classified according to sex, there are 650,586 males and 660,143 females; proportion of males, 49·63 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—262,015 males and 210,610 females; total children, 472,625, or 36·1 per cent. of the population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is given at 246,641, as against 141,930 male adult non-agriculturists. The ethnical division of the people shows—48 Europeans; 1 Eurasian; 4 Jews; 7076 aborigines; 67,504 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 203,747 Hindus subdivided according to caste; 14,370 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 1,017,979 Muhammadans. It was one of the surprises revealed by the Census that the Musalmáns constitute more than three-fourths of the inhabitants. There can be no doubt that in Rájsháhí, as in the rest of the Gangetic delta, the great bulk of the people are of aboriginal descent; and that the majority willingly adopted the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining out-castes beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. Of the tribes classed as aborigines, the Dhángars or hillmen from Chutiá Nágpur are by far the most numerous, forming 6619 out of the total of 7076. They have immigrated into the District either to clear the jungles, or to work as labourers on the roads and in European factories. The semi-Hinduized aborigines are mainly represented by the Chandáls, numbering 28,762; the Kochs or Rájbansis, 11,625; the Cháins, 8802. Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans

number 15,660, including many of the largest landholders; the Rájputs, 1541; the Káyasths, 8272. By far the most numerous caste is the Kaibartta, with 60,440 members; and next comes the kindred Jaliyá, with 16,692. Emigration from the District is unknown. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of:—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 286,870, or 21·9 per cent.; Musalmáns, 1,017,979, or 77·7 per cent. The remainder is made up of 103 Christians, including 54 native converts in connection with the Presbyterian mission at Rámpur Beauleah; 10 Buddhists; 5767 'others.' The Bráhma Samáj has a comparatively numerous following among the Government officials at Beauleah, who have built for themselves a substantial meeting-house. At the same town there is also a wealthy community of Jain merchants. The Vaishnav sect is returned as numbering 14,268. The Muhammadans almost entirely belong to the cultivating class, and engage little in trade. It is stated that Faráizí fanaticism is not very prevalent among them, and that at the present day Islám gains no proselytes from the Hindus.

The population is almost entirely rural. Only two towns are returned in the Census Report of 1872 as each containing more than 5000 inhabitants—RAMPUR BEAULEAH, pop. 22,291; and NATTOR, 9674; showing a total urban population of 31,965, or 2·43 per cent. It is noticeable that in these towns the Muhammadans are considerably below the general proportion. The people show no tendency whatever to gather even into large villages. Out of the total of 4228 villages, 3508 each contain less than 500 inhabitants. Godágári on the Ganges, and Náogáon on the Jamuná, conduct a considerable river traffic; Lálpur, also on the Ganges, is the centre of a flourishing industry in jewellery and brass-ware; and several other places have local importance as the sites of frequented temples and mosques.

Agriculture, etc.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District. Of the total food supply, the *áman* or winter crop, grown on low lands, forms from 70 to 90 per cent.; the *áus* or early crop, grown on high lands, from 5 to 20 per cent.; the *boro* or marsh crop is comparatively insignificant. In addition, wheat, barley, and Indian corn are grown to a small extent; and various pulses and oil-seeds are raised from the *áus* rice-fields during the cold season. The crops grown in connection with European enterprise are indigo and mulberry for silk-worms, but both are now on the decline. In 1872, when the demand for jute was at its highest, the area under this fibre was about 14,000 acres, with an out-turn of more than 150,000 cwts. In the extreme north of the District there is a small tract on which is grown the *gánjá* (Cannabis sativa), which supplies the smokers of this drug throughout a great part of India. No adequate reason is assigned for the extremely limited nature of this cultivation. The total area under *gánjá* is

estimated at only 400 acres, and the annual produce at 7000 cwts., valued at £20,000, which is nearly all exported. The demand for the drug is kept down by repeated augmentations in the rate of the excise duty. Manure is but little used throughout Rájsháhí. Irrigation is practised in the case of rice-fields, the water being conducted from tanks or natural water-courses by means of small trenches. Land is hardly ever permitted to lie fallow; at most, one crop is occasionally substituted for another. Spare land is only to be seen in the elevated tract to the north-west of the District. The average produce of an acre of good rice land, renting at from 6s. to 9s., is 20 cwts., valued at £1, 16s. In the eastern part of the District, a second crop of pulses or oil-seeds is raised from the *áus* rice-fields, which yields from 4 to 6 cwts. per acre, worth from 18s. to £1, 4s. The lowest rate of rent is 3s. per acre; the highest is 18s., paid for mulberry, sugar-cane, and garden lands. Prior to the Decennial Settlement of 1790, the rent paid for ordinary lands was under 1s. an acre. There is but little peculiarity in the land tenures of the District, except the small number of *patní* or permanent under-leases. A few large *zamíndárs* still hold the greater part of the soil in their own management. It is estimated that more than 90 per cent. of the cultivators have won for themselves rights of occupancy, by a continuous holding of over twelve years; the remainder are mere tenants-at-will.

The ordinary rates of wages have approximately doubled within the past ten years. A common coolie now receives 3d. a day; an agricultural labourer, 3¾d.; a blacksmith or carpenter, 9d.; a mason or bricklayer, 6d. It does not appear whether the prices of food grains have risen in proportion. In 1870, common rice sold at from 2s. to 2s. 8d. per cwt.; wheat at 5s. 5d. The highest price reached by rice in 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, was 13s. 4d. per cwt.

Rájsháhí is liable, to some extent, to both the calamities of flood and drought. The inundation which covers the country every year with water is usually only of such a character as to fertilize the soil; and the growing rice crop can keep pace with a moderate daily rise of the water. But on two or three occasions within the memory of the present generation, violent floods have injuriously affected the general harvest. On the other hand, in 1873, the deficient and capricious rainfall produced an amount of suffering which required the institution of relief works by Government. By help of the Ganges and the Northern Bengal Railway, the District is sufficiently well provided with means of communication to prevent a local scarcity from intensifying into famine. No system of irrigation works or embankments has ever been proposed for adoption. If the price of rice were to rise in January, after the *áman* harvest, to 6s. 8d. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Manufactures, etc.—In former times, the preparation of indigo and the winding of silk were largely conducted by European capital; but both these industries are now on the decline. The annual out-turn of indigo is estimated at about 700 cwts., from three factories; the European and native filatures produce about 400,000 lbs. of raw silk in the year, valued at £372,000. Up to the time when the Company abandoned its private trade in 1835, the head factory at Rámpur Beauleah was among the most flourishing centres of sericulture in Bengal. A little of the native-wound silk is woven into a coarse cloth for local use; and there is a special manufacture in certain villages of brass and bell-metal ware of a peculiarly fine quality.

River traffic is brisk in all parts of the District. The chief marts are Rámpur Beauleah and Godágári on the Ganges; and Náogáon, Kálíganj, and Burídahá on the network of streams which lead through the Chalan *bíl* into the Brahmaputra. The principal export is rice, together with some jute from the northern tracts, to which may be added silk, indigo, and *gánjá*. The imports comprise piece-goods, salt, sugar, gram, and spices. The local trade is conducted in bi-weekly markets, and at periodical religious gatherings. The registration returns of river traffic for 1876-77 show a total export from Rájsháhí valued at £907,855, against imports valued at £439,799. It is possible that many imports pass unregistered, but it is evident that the balance of trade is greatly in favour of the District. The greater portion of the traffic converges at the railway stations of Goálanda and Kushtiá, but there is some export of rice up the Ganges to Behar. The chief exports were—rice, 899,700 *maunds* of 82 lbs., and paddy, 394,500 *maunds*, valued together at £219,390; jute, 402,303 *maunds*, valued at £120,690; raw silk, 7784 *maunds*, valued at £389,200; indigo, 1290 *maunds*, valued at £25,800. The imports comprised—European piece-goods, £63,310; salt, 214,600 *maunds*, valued at £107,300; sugar, refined, 91,600 *maunds*—unrefined, 84,700 *maunds*, valued together at £143,910; coal and coke 173,139 *maunds*; indigo seed, 5921 *maunds*. Of the local marts, the trade of Rámpur Beauleah was valued at £342,019 exports, and £199,161 imports; Godágári, £17,089 exports, and £193 imports; Náogáon, £122,959 exports, and £34,378 imports. The single mart of Burídahá exported 206,000 *maunds* of jute.

The Northern Bengal State Railway, which has recently been opened, intersects the whole District from south to north. In 1871, the total length of the District roads was returned at 179 miles, maintained at a cost of £1898. But the chief means of communication are the natural water-courses, by which every village can be approached during the rainy season.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Rájsháhí District amounted to £136,808, towards which the land tax contributed

£103,456, or 75 per cent.; the net expenditure was £46,438, or just one-third of the revenue. It would be misleading to compare these totals with those for earlier years; but it may be mentioned that in 1793-94, when the area of the District was fivefold larger than it is now, the net revenue was £175,734, and the net expenditure £19,815. In 1870-71, there were 4 covenanted officers stationed in the District, and 13 magisterial and 15 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes, Rájsháhí is divided into 12 *thánás* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 385 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £7779. In addition, there was a municipal police of 84 men, and a rural police or village watch of 3333 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 3802 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 0·58 square mile of the area or to every 345 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £20,969, averaging £9, 7s. 9d. per square mile, and 3¾d. per head of population. In that year, the total number of persons in Rájsháhí District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1741, being one person to every 573 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail, which has recently been converted into a central jail for the neighbouring Districts, and two Subdivisional lock-ups. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 559, of whom 9 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 523. These figures show 1 person in jail to every 2343 of the population. The total cost amounted to £2120, or £3, 15s. 10d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £856, or £3, 8s. 9d. for each manufacturing prisoner. The prison death-rate was as low as 23 per thousand, as against 53 per thousand for the jails of Bengal generally.

Education has widely spread of recent years, chiefly owing to the reforms of Sir G. Campbell, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended to the *páthsálás* or village schools. In 1856, there were only 2 schools in the District, attended by 209 pupils; by 1870, these numbers had grown to 174 schools and 4862 pupils. In the latter year, the total expenditure on education was £5225, towards which Government contributed £2714. In 1876, the schools had further increased to 319, and the pupils to 10,051, showing 1 school to every 7 square miles, and 7 pupils to every thousand of the population. The chief educational establishment is the English school at Rámpur Beauleah, which has recently been raised to the level of a college teaching up to the standard of the First Arts University Examination, through the liberality of a local *zamíndár*, who has endowed it with an estate worth £500 a year. In 1872, it was attended by 235 pupils.

The District is divided into 2 adminstrative Subdivisions, and 12 police circles. There are 48 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions, with an

aggregate of 1721 revenue-paying estates. In 1876, there were 7 civil judges and 9 stipendiary magistrates; the maximum distance of any village from the nearest court was 34 miles, the average distance 22 miles. According to the Census Report of 1872, there are 2 municipalities in the District—RAMPUR BEAULEAH and NATTOR—with a total population within municipal limits of 31,965; the gross municipal income is returned (1876-77) at £1627, the average rate of taxation being 11⅞d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Rájsháhí does not differ from that common to all Lower Bengal. The rainy season sets in about the middle of June and lasts till the end of October. The annual rainfall averages 62·19 inches. In 1868, the mean temperature for the year was returned at 78·3° F.

The endemic diseases include fevers, both remittent and intermittent; hepatic affections, splenic enlargement, dysentery, and diarrhœa. It is said that cholera is never absent from the neighbourhood of the Chalan *bíl*, whence it occasionally spreads throughout the District, being propagated by contagion at the religious gatherings. Outbreaks, also, of epidemic small-pox are not uncommon. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate, during 1875, of 28·62 per thousand in the rural area, and 36·17 in the urban area, which is conterminous with the municipality of Náttor. There were, in 1872, five charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 417 in-door and 11,299 out-door patients were treated during the year; the total income was £561, towards which Government contributed £165.

Rájsháhí.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Rájsháhí District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 3′ 15″ to 24° 56′ N., and long. 88° 21′ to 89° 11′ E.; area, 1402 square miles; villages, 2860; houses, 160,008; pop. (1872), 884,005. Persons per square mile, 631; villages per square mile, 2·04; persons per village, 309; houses per square mile, 114; persons per house, 5·5. This Subdivision comprises the 9 police circles (*thánás*) of Rámpur Beauleah, Godágári, Tánor, Mandá, Bándáikára, Bághmára, Putiyá, Chárghát, and Lálpur.

Rájsháhí with Kuch Behar.—Division or Commissionership under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 23° 43′ 45″ and 26° 20′ N. lat., and between 87° 43′ and 89° 54′ 30″ E. long. Area (according to the Parliamentary Returns for 1878), 17,455 square miles; pop. 7,377,063. It comprises the seven Districts of DINAJPUR, RAJSHAHI, RANGPUR, BOGRA, PABNA, DARJILING, JALPAIGURI, and the Native State of KUCH BEHAR. The District of Maldah has been transferred to Bhágalpur since 1872. Rájsháhí Division is bounded north by Bhután and Nepál; east by the Districts of Goálpára, the Garo Hills, and Maimansinh; south by Dacca, Farídpur, Nadiyá, and Jessor; and west by Purniah, Maldah, and Murshidábád.

Raldang (or *West Kailás*).—Mountain in Bashahr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 29′ N., long. 78° 21′ E. Thornton states that it rises from the Kunáwár valley, and divides the basin of the Baspa from that of the Tidang. The highest peak (according to Thornton) has an elevation of 21,103 feet above sea level.

Rámamalai (or *Rámandrug*, *Rámadurgam*).—Hill sanatorium in Hospet *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 6′ 30″ N., long. 76° 30′ 30″ E.; 38 miles west of Bellary town. Estimated pop. 500. In the year 1846, the Madras Government obtained permission from the Chief of Sandúr to establish a Convalescent Depôt for the European troops at Bellary, on the plateau of Rámandrug in the Sandúr territory. The station is built at a height of 3150 feet above the sea level, 1825 above Bellary, and 1200 above the surrounding plain. The plateau is from a mile to a mile and half long, by half a mile to three-quarters of a mile broad. The average temperature of the hill very much resembles that of Bangalore, but the climate is much more equable and the variation of the thermometer less. From its solitary position, even in the hottest seasons, the air reaches it fresh, being rarified in its passage over a lofty tableland. There are several well laid out riding-paths on both sides of the plateau, which afford from all points beautiful views of the surrounding country. On the plateau itself there are upwards of 3 miles of broad level road practicable for vehicles.

Rámanáda-púram.—Chief town of Madura District, Madras.—*See* RAMNAD.

Ramanka.—One of the petty States in Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £150; and tribute of £57 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £10 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Ramás.—One of the petty States in Mahi Kántha, Bombay. Estimated area under cultivation (1875), 1708 acres; pop. (1872), 1651. The revenue is returned at £150; and tribute of £15 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The Chief of Ramás, Miáh Kálú, is a Muhammadan.

Rambha.—Village in Ganjám District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 2543.

Rambrái.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, under the presidency of a *siem* named U Amar Sinh. Pop. (1872), 1737; revenue, £44. The products are rice, chillies, millet, and Indian corn. Cotton cloth is woven.

Rámdás.—Municipal town in Amritsar (Umritsur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 58′ N., long. 74° 58′ E.; pop. (1868), 5823, consisting of 1845 Hindus, 3132 Muhammadans, 620 Síkhs, and 226 'others.' Situated near the Kirrán stream, 12 miles north-east of Ajnála. Founded by one Bádhá, a disciple of Bába Nának, the apostle of the Síkh faith, but

derives its present name from Guru Rám Dás. Handsome Síkh temple, to which the town owes its chief importance. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £156, or 6⅝d. per head of population (5257) within municipal limits.

Rámdrug.—Native State within the Political Agency of the Southern Marhattá Country, Bombay. Area, 140 square miles; pop. (1872), 38,031. Bounded on the north and west by the Torgal Subdivision of Kolhápur State, on the south by Nargund in Dhárwár District, and on the east by the Bádámi Subdivision of Kaládgi District.

The general appearance of the country is that of a plain surrounded by undulating lands, and occasionally intersected by ridges of hills. The prevailing soil is rich black. The river Malprabha flows through the State, and is utilized for irrigation. Indian millet, wheat, gram, and cotton form the chief agricultural products. Coarse cotton cloth is the principal manufacture. The climate is the same as in the Deccan generally; the heat from March to May is oppressive. The prevailing diseases are cholera, small-pox, and fever. Nargund and Rámdrug, two of the strongest forts in the Karnatic, were occupied by the Marhattás in their early struggles; and by favour of the Peshwás, the ancestors of the present Rámdrug family were placed in charge of them. About 1753, the estates yielded £24,725, and were required to furnish a contingent of 350 horsemen. They were held on these terms until 1778, when the country was brought under subjection by Haidar Alí. In 1784, Tipú Sultán made further demands. These were resisted, and, in consequence, the fort of Rámdrug was blockaded by Tipú. After a siege of seven months, Venkat Ráo of Nargund surrendered, and, in violation of the terms of capitulation, was carried off a prisoner with his whole family into Mysore. On the fall of Seringapatam in 1799, Venkat Ráo was released, and the Peshwá restored to him Nargund and lands yielding £12,711, and granted to Rám Ráo the fort of Rámdrug, with lands yielding £2600. The two branches of the family continued to enjoy their respective States till 1810, when the Peshwá made a new division of the lands, in equal shares, to Venkat Ráo and Náráyan Ráo, the sons of Rám Ráo. On the fall of the Peshwá in 1818-19, the estates were continued to these two chiefs by an engagement. Nargund is now a lapsed State, being included in the Nawalgund Subdivision of Dhárwár District. The present (1876-77) Chief of Rámdrug, Yogi Ráo Rámchandra, a Hindu of the Bráhman caste, is twenty-five years of age, and administers his estate in person. He ranks officially as a 'first-class' Sardár in the Southern Marhattá Country, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £10,404, and maintains a military force of 750 men. The family of the chief hold a title

authorizing adoption, and follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. The State contains 3 schools, with a total of 200 pupils.

Rámdrug.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Bombay. Lat. 15° 56′ 40″ N., long. 75° 20′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 6543.

Rámeswaram (incorrectly *Ramisseram*).—Island and town in Rámnád *zamíndárí*, Madura, Madras. Lat. 9° 17′ 10″ N., long. 79° 21′ 55″ E.; pop. (1871), 13,767, dwelling in 2806 houses. A low sandy island, situated in the Gulf of Manaar, the passage that separates India from Ceylon. It is about 12 miles long by 6 wide, and was probably at one time connected with the mainland. It contains one of the most venerated Hindu shrines in India, founded, according to tradition, by Ráma himself. It is associated with Ráma's journey to Ceylon in search of Sítá, and plays an important part in the *Rámáyana*. For centuries this temple has been the resort of thousands of pilgrims, who come from all parts of India through Rámnád to the crossing; and it is to their control of the passage from the mainland that the chiefs of Rámnád owe their hereditary title of Setupati, 'Lord of the Bridge or Causeway.'

The present temple stands in a quadrangular enclosure 650 feet broad by about 1000 feet long, and is entered by a gateway 100 feet high. The best and oldest portion is built of a dark and hard limestone, to which there is nothing similar in the rest of the building. Local tradition asserts that it was erected by the Vara Rájá Sekkarar of Kandy, with stones cut and polished in Ceylon. The inner *prákáram* or corridor is ascribed to the exertion and piety of an early Madura Náyak; and it is known that the *sokkatan*, or magnificent *mantapam* outside, was the work of two of the Rámnád Setupatis. The stone of this latter building is a species of friable limestone quarried on the island, requiring a thick coat of plaster to preserve it from decay under the action of the sea-air. Its cost is said to have been defrayed by the seaport dues of all the coast towns of the estate during the year that it was building. The most striking features of the temple are the massiveness of the workmanship (slabs of 40 feet long being used in the doorways and ceilings), and the wonderful pillared halls which surround the inner shrine.

Mr. James Fergusson, in his *History of Eastern Architecture* (ed. 1876), thus describes this celebrated shrine:—'If it were proposed to select one temple which should exhibit all the beauties of the Dravidian style in their greatest perfection, and at the same time exemplify all its characteristic defects of design, the choice would almost inevitably fall upon that at Rámeswaram. In no other temple has the same amount of patient industry been exhibited as here; and in none, unfortunately, has that labour been so thrown away for want of a design appropriate to its display. It is not that this temple has grown by successive

increments, like those last described; it was begun and finished on a previously settled plan, as regularly and as undeviatingly carried out as at Tanjore, but on a principle so diametrically opposed to it, that while the temple at Tanjore produces an effect greater than is due to its mass or detail, this one, with double its dimensions and ten times its elaboration, produces no effect externally, and internally can only be seen in detail, so that the parts hardly in any instance aid one another in producing the effect aimed at.

'Externally, the temple is enclosed by a wall 20 feet in height, with 4 *gopuras*, one on each face, which have this peculiarity, that they alone, of all those I know in India, are built wholly of stone from the base to the summit. The western one alone, however, is finished. Those on the north and south are hardly higher than the wall in which they stand, and are consequently called the ruined gateways. Partly from their form, but more from the solidity of their construction, nothing but an earthquake could well damage them. They have never been raised higher, and their progress was probably stopped in the beginning of the last century, when Muhammadans, Marhattás, and other foreign invaders checked the prosperity of the land, and destroyed the wealth of the priesthood. The eastern façade has two entrances and two *gopuras*. The glory of the temple, however, is in its corridors. These extend to a total length of nearly 4000 feet. Their breadth varies from 20 feet to 30 feet of free floor space, and their height is apparently about 30 feet from the floor to the centre of the roof. Each pillar or pier is compound, and richer and more elaborate in design than those of the Parvati porch at Chidambaram, and certainly more modern in date.

'None of our English cathedrals are more than 500 feet long, and even the nave of St. Peter's is only 600 feet from the door to the apse. Here the side corridors are 700 feet long, and open into transverse galleries as rich in detail as themselves. These, with the varied devices and modes of lighting, produce an effect that is not equalled certainly anywhere in India. The side corridors are generally free from figure-sculpture, and, consequently, from much of the vulgarity of the age to which they belong, and, though narrower, produce a more pleasing effect. The central corridor leading from the sanctuary is adorned on one side by portraits of the Rájás of Rámnád in the 17th century, and, opposite them, of their secretaries. Even they, however, would be tolerable, were it not that within the last few years they have been painted with a vulgarity that is inconceivable on the part of the descendants of those who built this fane. Not only these, but the whole of the architecture, has first been dosed with repeated coats of whitewash, so as to take off all the sharpness of detail, and then painted with blue, green, red, and yellow washes, so as to disfigure and destroy its effect to an extent that must be seen to be believed.

'The age of this temple is hardly doubtful. From first to last its style, excepting the old *vimána*, is so uniform and unaltered, that its erection could hardly have lasted during a hundred years; and if this is so, it must have been during the 17th century, when the Rámnád Rájás were at the height of their independence and prosperity, and when their ally or master, Tirumala Náyak, was erecting buildings in the same identical style at Madura. It may have been commenced fifty years earlier (1550), and the erection of its *gopuras* may have extended into the 18th century, but these seem the possible limits of deviation. Being so recent, any one on the spot could easily ascertain the facts. They could, indeed, be determined very nearly from the photographs, were it not for the whitewash and paint which so disfigure the details as to make them almost unrecognisable.'

The temple, its ceremonies, and its attendant Bráhmans are maintained from the revenue of 57 villages, yielding an annual income of about £4500, granted by former Rájás of the Rámnád *zamíndárí*. The *lingam* is supposed to have been placed here by Ráma; and the symbol is washed with Ganges water, which is afterwards sold. The island is low and sandy, little cultivated, and covered by *bábul* (Acacia arabica). Scrub, palms, and a few gardens make up all the cultivation.

Rámganga, Eastern.—River in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Rises on the southern slope of the main Himálayan range, at an elevation of about 9000 feet above sea level; holds a generally southerly course for about 55 miles, and falls into the Sarju at Rameswar. The united stream often bears the name of Rámganga as far as its junction with the Káli.

Rámganga, Western.—River in Kumáun and Rohilkhand Divisions, North-Western Provinces, and in Hardoi District, Oudh. Rises among the outer Himálayas, in lat. 30° 6′ N., and long. 79° 20′ E. Flows for about 100 miles through the hills of Garhwál and Kumáun, with a very rapid fall; enters the plains at Kálágarh in Bijnaur District, already a large river; 15 miles lower down it receives the Koh, a considerable tributary; thence passes into Moradábád District, through which it flows in a south-easterly direction, but with a very devious course through the alluvial lowland; runs past the town of Moradábád, on its right bank; enters the State of Rámpur, which it crosses in the same general direction, with an equally tortuous course, into Bareilly (Bareli) District—here it becomes navigable during the rains for country boats, but remains fordable during the dry season; thence, flowing through Budáun into Sháhjahánpur, it ceases to be fordable at Jalálábád, and becomes navigable for boats of considerable burden, which carry on a traffic in cereals and pulses, in the hands of traders from Cawnpore; it next crosses into the Oudh District of Hardoi, and finally joins the

Ganges, nearly opposite Kanauj, after a total course of about 373 miles. Its principal tributaries are the Kusi, the Sanka, and the Deoha or Garah. During its whole course through the plains, the Rámganga flows in a shifting and uncertain channel. It changed its bed about the middle of this century, so as to run into the Dajora and pass Bareilly city; but in the rains of 1871, it returned to its old channel, about 10 miles distant. During floods, the river spreads out widely on either side, and deposits a fine alluvial mud; though in places where the current runs fiercely, it leaves instead a layer of barren sand. Its waters are little used for purposes of irrigation.

Rámgarh.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; in the Dámodar valley, near the old village of Rámgarh, whence the field takes its name. Its total area does not exceed 40 square miles; the greatest length from east to west being 14 miles, and the greatest width from north to south about 8 miles. The southern boundary is formed by a fault; and owing to the peculiar way in which this has cut off the rocks, it is extremely difficult, except in the case of the ironstone shales, to estimate with any degree of certainty the thickness of the several formations. The following is as near an approximation as can be made:—(1) Tálcher series, 850 to 900 feet; (2) Dámodar series, Barákhar group, 3000 feet; ironstone shales group, 1200 feet; Ránίganj group, unknown. The boulder conglomerate occurring at the base of the Tálcher rocks is considered by geologists to be a shore deposit, formed from silt gradually accumulating as the waters advanced over the sinking surface, upon a *talus* composed of boulders and weathered masses of gneiss resting on the flanks of the metamorphic hills. The usual carbonaceous ore of iron is found in the ironstone shales; but it is of inferior quality, and its proportion is below the average obtained in other fields. The Rámgarh field is of but small value in an economic point of view. The coal in the eastern part occurs generally in thick seams, some of them having low dips; but the quality is so variable, thin bands of coal frequently alternating with strong carbonaceous shale, that it is improbable that the former, even under the most favourable conditions of market and carriage, could ever be extracted with profit.

Rámgarh.—Hill in Sargúja State, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. A rectangular mass of sandstone rising abruptly from the plain, about 8 miles west of Lakhanpur village. It is ascended from the northern side by a path, which follows the ridge of an outlying spur nearly as far as the base of the main rock. Here, at a height of 2600 feet, is an ancient stone gateway, the lintel of which is sculptured with an image of Ganesha. A little west of this, but at the same level, a constant stream of pure water wells out, in a natural grotto, from a fissure in the massive bed of standstone. A second gateway crowns the most

difficult part of the ascent. Colonel Dalton considers this to be the best executed and most beautiful architectural antiquity of the entire region, which abounds in remains indicating a previous occupation of the country by some race more highly civilised than its present inhabitants. Though the origin of these gateways is unknown, the second is unquestionably the more modern work, and belongs to that description of Hindu architecture which bears most resemblance to the Saracenic. On Rámgarh Hill are several rock-caves with roughly cut inscriptions, and ruins of temples containing figures of Durgá with twenty arms, Hanumán, and other deities. But the most striking feature is the singular tunnel in the northern face of the rock, known as the Háthpor. Mr. V. Ball, of the Geological Survey, attributes its formation to the trickling of water through crevices in the sandstone, and it certainly bears no sign of human workmanship. At its mouth, this tunnel is about 20 feet in height by 30 in breadth; but at the inner extremity of its course of 150 yards, it is not more than 8 feet by 12. (For further details concerning the temples on Rámgarh Hill and in its neighbourhood, and its cave-tunnel, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 236-240.)

Rámgarh.—North-eastern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Mandla District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 83,707, residing in 686 villages or townships and 18,361 houses, on an area of 2677 square miles.

Rámgarh.—Town in Mandla District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 47′ N., and long. 81° E., on a rocky eminence, below which flows the Burhner, separating Rámgarh from the village of Amarpur, the site of an encamping ground. In 1680, Rámgarh, with the title of Rájá, was bestowed by Rájá Narendra Sá on a chief who had assisted him in recovering his dominions, from which he had been expelled by a cousin, aided by a Muhammadan force. The quit-rent was fixed at £300, and was still in force at the British occupation in 1818. On the execution of Rájá Shankar Sá—the descendant of the Gond kings of Garhá-Mandla—at Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) in 1857, the Rání, who then represented the family on behalf of her lunatic son, Amán Sinh, seized Rámgarh in her son's name. She headed her troops in several skirmishes with the English, but was at length compelled to take to flight. When the pursuit grew warm, she dismounted and plunged a sword into her own bosom. She was carried into the English camp, where she soon afterwards expired. Amán Sinh and his two sons then surrendered. The former was deprived of his title of Rájá, and of his estate, a stipend being assigned to the family for their support. Rámgarh is now the headquarters of a *tahsíl*, and has a police station and a school.

Rámgarh.—Fort in Hindúr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 5′ N., long. 76° 51′ E. Stands on the steep ridge which runs from the Himálayan range to the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). During the Gúrkha war

of 1814, General Ochterlony invested the fort, and succeeded in conveying guns up the steep and pathless slopes of the hillside; upon which, after a short cannonade, the garrison capitulated. Elevation above sea level, 4054 feet.

Rámgarh.—One of the petty States in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency. The Thákur, Madhan Sinh, receives through the Political Agent the following *tankhas* or pecuniary allowances in lieu of rights over lands, viz.—from Holkar, £100; from Sindhia, £681; from Dewás, £100; from Bhopál, £70: total, £851.

Rámghát.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 2776. Situated on the right bank of the Ganges; distant from Anúpshahr 20 miles south-east, from Bulandshahr town 42 miles south-east. One of the sacred *gháts* to which pilgrims resort from all parts of India to bathe in the Ganges. The population has largely decreased of late years, as the river has taken a new course, which threatens entirely to wash away the town. Bridge of boats conveys the Alígarh and Islámnagar road across the Ganges for eight months of the year. Considerable through trade with Rohilkhand, and, by boat, with Benares and Mírzápur: chief exports, wheat and wool. Village school, girls' school, police station, post office. The Marhattás were defeated here in 1763 by a combined British and Oudh force. Numerous Hindu temples, none of architectural importance.

Rámgirí.—Hill in Bangalore District, Mysore, on the left bank of the Arkavati. Lat. 12° 45′ N., long. 77° 22′ E. Crowned with the ruins of fortifications, captured by the British in 1791. On the foundation of Closepet in 1800, the inhabitants of Rámgirí removed to the new settlement.

Rámia Bihár.—Village in Kheri District, Oudh; situated on the north side of an old channel of the Kauriála, now closed up and forming a lake. Pop. (1869), 1486, viz. 1352 Hindus and 134 Musalmáns. Picturesquely situated between fine groves east and west of the village. Small market.

Ramisseram.—Island and town in Madura District, Madras.—*See* RAMESWARAM.

Rámkail.—Fair held annually on the last day of June, within the precincts of Old Gaur, in the immediate neighbourhood of the great Ságar Díghí, Maldah District, Bengal. Pilgrims, chiefly Hindus of the Vaishnav sect, flock hither to the number of 30,000 from all parts of Maldah, and from the neighbouring Districts. The ceremonies consist in performing worship, and giving feasts in honour of Krishna. Advantage is also taken of this occasion by the Vaishnavs to get married in strict accordance with the rites prescribed by Chaitanya. This religious gathering continues for five days. The place is well supplied with tanks, containing abundance of wholesome water.

Rámkot.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the

north by Sítápur *parganá*, on the east by Khairábád, on the south by Machhrehta, and on the west by Misrikh. A small *parganá*, with an area of 20 square miles, of which 11 are under cultivation. Pop. (1869), 8791, viz. 8600 Hindus and 191 Muhammadans. The incidence of the Government land revenue is at the rate of 3s. $4\frac{1}{8}$d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 3d. per acre of assessed area, or 1s. $11\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre of total area. The village of Rámkot, from which the *parganá* derives its name, is said to have been founded by Ráma himself during his wanderings in exile. It is situated 7 miles from Sítápur town; noted for its fine tanks, and a favourite resort of the European residents of the civil station. The *tálukdárs* are Janwár Rájputs, the descendants of a chief who acquired the tract in 1707 by conquest from the Kachheras.

Rammán. — One of the tributaries of the Great Ranjít river in Dárjíling District, Bengal. It rises under the Phalálum Mountain in the Singálilá range, which separates Dárjíling from Nepál. The Rammán first touches upon the former District in its extreme north-west portion, whence it flows along the northern boundary from west to east until it falls into the Great Ranjít, in lat. 27° 8′ N., and long. 88° 19′ E. The banks of the river are abrupt and covered for the most part with forest and jungle, its bed is rocky, and it is not fordable at any season of the year. The principal tributaries of the Rammán within Dárjíling District are the Ratho and Srí.

Rámnád (*Rámanátha-puram*).—Chief town of an important *zamíndárí*, Madura District, Madras. The town is situated in lat. 9° 22′ 16″ N., and long. 78° 52′ 9″ E.; pop. (1871), 15,442, residing in 3248 houses. Within the fort, the majority of the inhabitants belong to the Vallállar and Maravar castes, depending for their livelihood upon service about the palace. Outside the fort live a great number of Chettis and Labbays, in whose hands is the whole coast trade. There is a neat Protestant church, belonging to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, who have a mission here; two Roman Catholic churches; and several large rest-houses, which are the resort of the pilgrims passing through Rámnád on their way to Rámeswaram. The town was captured by General Smith in 1772. The old Rámnád princes claimed the title of Setupatis, or Lords of the Bridge, in allusion to the legendary invasion of Ceylon by Ráma, *viâ* Adam's Bridge and Rámeswaram.

The *zamíndárí* or estate lies between lat. 9° 3′ and 10° 2′ N., and long. 78° and 79° 24′ E.; being bounded on the north by Sivaganga, Pudukottai, and Tanjore, on the east and south by the sea, on the south by Tinnevelli, and on the west by Tinnevelli and Madura. The chief is the head of the Maravar caste. Pokalúr, now only a small hamlet on the Madura road, and 10 miles north-west of Rámnád, was formerly the family seat; but about the commencement of the 18th

century, they moved their capital to the present town, and fortified it. The fortifications (now destroyed) consisted of a wall 27 feet high and 5 feet thick, surrounded by a ditch, now filled with rubbish. In the centre of the fort is the royal palace. The treaty of 1792 provided that the *paligárs* dependent on the Subahdári or Governorship of Arcot should be placed under the British Government. On this occasion, Colonel Martyn was sent with a small force to occupy Rámnád, and to arrange for the punctual collection of the revenue due from the estate. In 1795, the *zamíndár* was deposed for rebellion, and sent as a prisoner to Madras. In 1803, the Company made over Rámnád to the elder sister of the deposed *zamíndár*, the assessment being fixed permanently in the proportion of two-thirds of the gross revenue. The estate is now in the hands of the Court of Wards, the *zamíndár* being a minor, and will not come of age till 1889. The general appearance of the country is flat and uninteresting. Large groves of palmyra palms form the only feature in the landscape. The Vaigai river, which waters Madura, supplies the large tank at Rámnád, capable of irrigating over 6000 acres of land. The total number of tanks in the *zamíndárí* is 1767. The population was returned by the Census of 1871 at 500,653 persons; of whom 87 per cent. are Hindus, 13 per cent. Muhammadans and 'others.' The area is about one million acres; the total revenue is estimated at £73,400; the *peshkash*, or tribute payable to the British Government, is fixed at £33,868. In 1769, the famous Jesuit, John de Britto, was put to death by the Rájá of Rámnád.

Rámnagar.—Town in Benares District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 16′ 7″ N., long. 83° 4′ 1″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,953, consisting of 9424 Hindus and 2529 Muhammadans. Situated on the Ganges, about 2 miles above Benares city, of which it may be considered a suburb, and on the opposite or southern bank. Residence of the Mahárájá of Benares, who has a palace in the town. Interesting old fort; handsome temple, tank, and garden, commenced by Chait Sinh, and finished by the present Mahárájá.

Rámnagar.—Municipal town in Gujránwálá District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 19′ N., long. 73° 50′ E.; pop. (1868), 7598, consisting of 2673 Hindus, 4309 Muhammadans, 319 Síkhs, and 297 'others.' Situated below the high bank of the river Chenab (Chináb), 24 miles south-west of Wazírábád, and 28 miles north-west of Gujránwálá town. Originally known as Rasúlnagar, and founded by Núr Muhammad, a Chattah chieftain, who possessed great power in the Punjab during the first half of the 18th century. The town rapidly grew into importance under his family. Stormed, in 1795, by Ranjít Sinh, after a gallant resistance made by Ghulám Muhammad, the reigning Chattah chief. Received from the Síkhs its new name of Rámnagar. The population has decreased of late years. Manufacture of leathern vessels, used as sacks and bottles.

Annual fair on 1st of April, attended by 25,000 persons. Several fine buildings, erected during the Chattah supremacy, still remain. During the second Síkh war, Lord Gough first encountered the Síkh troops of Sher Sinh near Rámnagar in 1848. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £270, or 8½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Rámnagar.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Market twice a week.

Rámnagar.—Village in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 27° 9′ 53″ N., long. 84° 22′ 2″ E.; 13 miles north-west of Bettiá. Only noteworthy as the residence of the Rájá of Rámnagar, whose title was first conferred by the Emperor Aurangzeb in 1676, and confirmed by the British Government in 1860. His revenue is principally derived from the produce of the Rámnagar jungles. The village has a very bad reputation for fever.

Rámnagar.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the Chauka river; on the east by Bado Sarái *parganá*; on the south by the Kalyáni river; and on the west by Fatehpur *parganá*. Area, 112 square miles, or 71,716 acres, of which 50,732 acres are cultivated. Pop. (1869), 81,999, viz. 71,546 Hindus and 10,453 Muhammadans. Of the 168 villages which comprise the *parganá*, 138 are held in *tálukdárí*, 2 in *zamíndárí*, and 28 in *pattidárí* tenure. Government land revenue, £6850, at the rate of 3s. 4d. per cultivable acre. The principal proprietor is a Raikwár Rájput, Rájá Sarabjít Sinh. Communication is afforded by a metalled road with the great timber mart of Bahramghát, which lies within the *parganá*, and by the main road from Faizábád (Fyzábád) to Sítápur and Kheri. The *parganá* contains 6 village schools, 2 post offices, a police station, and a registration office.

Rámnagar.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated about 4 miles from Bahramghát, in lat. 27° 5′ N., and long. 81° 26′ 40″ E. Pop. (1869), 5717, viz. 4808 Hindus and 909 Muhammadans. Formerly the headquarters of a *tahsíl* or Subdivision, but this has been recently removed to Fatehpur. Police station, registration office, and branch dispensary.

Rámnagar.—Town in Mandla District, Central Provinces; 10 miles east of Mandla town. Situated in lat. 22° 36′ N., and long. 80° 33′ E., at a lovely spot on a bend of the Narbada (Nerbudda) river. The storm of Chaurágarh by the Bundelás, and the growth of the Mughal Empire on the one hand, and the Deogarh Gond kingdom on the other, made it advisable for the Garhá Mandla kings to select a more retired stronghold than Garhá or Chaurágarh. Accordingly, in 1663, Hirde Sá, 54th of the line, fixed on Rámnagar, which remained the seat of government for eight reigns, until Narendra Sá removed to Mandla. During that period Rámnagar was a large and important place; and a *báolí* or well, now 4 miles east of the palace, is said to have then been in the heart of the town.

The ruins are very extensive, the most remarkable being those of a palace built by Bhagwant Ráo, the prime minister of Hirde Sá. It was five storeys high, and overtopped the palace of the king, who ordered its walls to be lowered. The royal palace consisted of a quadrangle round an open court, with a small tank in the centre, supplied by fountains from the river. Close by, a small temple bears a Sanskrit inscription, recording the names of the Gond dynasty for thirteen centuries from Samvat 415, or 358 A.D., to the time of Hirde Sá.

Rampá (*Rumpah*).—Hill tract in Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 17° 18′ 40″ to 17° 49′ N., and long. 81° 34′ 30″ to 82° E.; pop. (1871), 13,958, residing in 3194 houses. Rampá is a wild country, stretching into the Nizám's territory and northward towards Bastar and Jáipur (Jeypore) of Vizagapatam. It contains 393 nominal villages, but it is very thinly populated, as the area is estimated at over 800 square miles. It yields no revenue to Government. Originally, it was granted to the Mansabdár as a *jágír* for military service. He had to maintain a force of *peons* at the disposal of Government, and when these were disbanded he was ordered to pay their annual cost. Subsequently, he was deprived of certain sources of revenue greater than this amount, and Government now pays him £735 per annum. Disturbances broke out here in 1862, arising from the unpopularity of the Mansabdár, and troops were sent against the rioters. A police force was in consequence recruited from the hillmen. In 1879, Rampá became the scene of another rising, which involved the employment of troops; and lasted in an intermittent way to the present time (1880).

Ramparda.—One of the petty States in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £103; and tribute of £7 is paid to the British Government.

Rámpur.—Native State in Rohilkhand, under the political superintendence of the Government of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 28° 26′ and 29° 10′ N. lat., and between 78° 54′ and 79° 33′ E. long. Bounded on the north and west by the British District of Moradábád, and on the north-east and south-east by the District of Bareli (Bareilly). The area is returned at 945 square miles; population (1872), 507,004, composed of 283,344 Hindus, 223,658 Muhammadans, and 2 Christians. Chief town, RAMPUR.

The rivers Kosila and Nahúl water its northern section; the Rámganga, after receiving the Kosila, irrigates its southern line of drainage from north to south. Soil generally fertile; but the *tarái* at the foot of the Himálayas, in Rámpur, as elsewhere, is still covered with jungle, and damp, low-lying forests. The State slopes upwards from the south, till a height of 630 feet is reached at Rudrapur on its northern frontier.

In 1877-78, the total income of the State amounted to £154,992, of which £152,400 was derived from land; the total expenditure was £134,628, including £58,463 for administration, £33,325 for the palace, £26,895 for troops and police, and £65,981 for public works.

The principal exports of Rámpur are sugar and rice, sent to the west; hides to the east; and *khes* (a kind of damask) for which the capital is famous, to all parts of India. The imports comprise English piece-goods from Calcutta; salt from Rájputána; elephants and horses, and spices. Besides the imperial road from Rámpur city to Bareli and Moradábád, there are three principal roads, leading to Sháhábád, Rudrapur, and Sewar.

The first Rohillá Afgháns who settled in this part of India were two brothers, Sháh Alam and Husáin Khán, who in the latter part of the 17th century came to seek service under the Mughal Emperor. The son of the first of these, Dáúd Khán, distinguished himself in the Marhattá wars, and received a grant of land near Budáun. His adopted son, Alí Muhammad, obtained the title of Nawáb and a grant of the greater part of Rohilkhand. Having offended the Subahdár of Oudh, he was compelled to surrender all his possessions; but taking advantage of the confusion consequent on the invasion of Ahmad Sháh Abdalí, he regained supremacy over Rohilkhand, and eventually obtained a confirmation of this territory from the son of the Emperor Muhammad Sháh. After the death of Alí Muhammad, the estates were divided among his sons, and the *jágír* of Rámpur Kotera fell to Faiz-ullá, the younger son. On the incursion of the Marhattás, the Rohillá Sardárs, as the chiefs of the family were termed, applied for aid to the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh. This was granted on the promise of a payment of 40 *lákhs* of rupees. The Rohillás, however, failed to fulfil their pecuniary obligations, and the Nawáb Wazír turned his arms against them and defeated them; but, by the intervention of the British authorities, a treaty was concluded in 1774, by which Faiz-ullá Khán was secured in the estate of Rámpur on condition of military service to the Wazír. This obligation was afterwards commuted for a cash payment of £150,000. On the death of Faiz-ullá, dissensions broke out in the family, the eldest son was murdered, and the *jágír* usurped by a younger son. As the State was held under British guarantee, the aid of British troops was given to the Nawáb of Oudh in ejecting the usurper and installing Ahmad Alí Khán, son of the murdered chieftain. On the cession of Rohilkhand to the British Government, in 1801, the family were confirmed in their possessions. For his services during the Mutiny of 1857, the Nawáb of Rámpur received a grant of land assessed at £12,852 in perpetuity, in addition to other honours. The present chief, Muhammad Kalab Ali Khán Bahádur, belongs to the tribe of Barez Afgháns. There are 3 courts in the State; sentences of death

require confirmation by the Nawáb. The civil courts of first instance are of two kinds—one for suits for debt, and the other for claims relating to inheritance, etc. There are 2 appellate courts, and a final appeal lies to the Nawáb in person. The military police are quartered in the capital, and in 8 police stations. The State contains a jail, with about 400 prisoners; 4 dispensaries; and 9 schools, in one of which English is taught. The military forces of Rámpur consist of 315 artillery, 505 cavalry, and 977 infantry with 28 guns, besides 1023 military police. The Nawáb is allowed a personal salute of 15 guns.

Rámpur.—Capital of Rámpur State, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 48′ N., long. 79° 4′ E.; pop. (1872), 68,301. Stands on the left bank of the Kosila river, surrounded by a belt of bamboos, trees, and brushwood, with a low ruined parapet. Residence of the Nawáb, who represents the old Rohillá chieftains of Rohilkhand. Lofty mosque in the market-place; streets densely crowded together, and principally built of mud. Tomb of Faiz-ullá Khán, north of the town, on raised masonry terrace, shaded by trees. Famous for its fine shawls (the Rampur *chadars*) and damask, which are exported to all parts of India. Elevation above sea level, 546 feet.

Rámpur.—Town in Sahúranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 48′ 15″ N., long. 77° 29′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 8234, consisting of 4157 Hindus and 4077 Muhammadans. Stands on a low site, 14 miles south of Sahúranpur town, on the old Delhi road. Narrow and uneven streets; good brick-built houses, with handsome fronts, especially those belonging to the Jain merchants known as Saraugís, who carry on an active trade in grain. Handsome new Jain temple, with gilt spire. The town is said to have been founded by Rájá Rám, and captured by Sálár Masaúd. Manufacture of glass bangles, which employs 6 large ovens. Religious fair in June, at the tomb of a Muhammadan saint, Shaikh Ibráhim, attracts a large number of devotees. *Parganá* school, police station, post office.

Rámpur.—Village in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 4287. Distant from Alíganj 4½ miles north, from Etah town 32 miles east. Busy little trading town, but chiefly remarkable as the residence of Rájá Rámachandra Sen, a lineal descendant of the last Rahtor Rájá of Kanauj, and tenth in descent from Rájá Rám Sahai, who founded the town in 1456 A.D. The Rájá of Rámpur ranks as head of the Rahtor clan in this part of India. The village is commonly known as Rámpur Rájá.

Rámpur.—Town in Bashahr State, Punjab, and residence of the Rájá. Lat. 31° 27′ N., long. 77° 40′ E. Mentioned by Thornton as standing at the base of a lofty mountain, overhanging the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), and 138 feet above the stream. Cliffs surround the town and confine the air, so that during summer the radiation from the rocks

renders the heat intolerable. The houses rise in tiers, many of them being built of stone. The Rájá's palace, at the north-east corner of the town, consists of several buildings, with carved wooden balconies, exhibiting marks of Chinese style. The Gúrkhas did much damage to the town and its trade during the period of their supremacy; but it has begun to recover under British protection. The Rájá resides at Rámpur during the winter, and retires to the cooler station of Saháran for the hottest months. Elevation above sea level, 3300 feet.

Rámpur.—Chiefship attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1870), 5288, chiefly agriculturists, residing in 63 villages, on an area of about 100 square miles. Chief products—rice, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. *Sál*, *sáj*, *dháurá*, ebony, and other timber trees grow in the forests; iron-ore is found in many parts. The chiefship was originally granted by Chhatra Sá, Rájá of Sambalpur, in 1630, to Prán Náth, a Rájput. In 1835, some relations of Rájá Náráyan Sinh were murdered by the brothers Surendra Sá and Udant Sá, who were condemned to imprisonment for life. While undergoing their sentence at Hazáríbágh, they were released by the mutineers in 1857, and at once stirred up rebellion in SAMBALPUR.

Rámpur.—*Parganá* in Partábgarh (Pratábgarh) District, Oudh, extending from the river Sái on the north almost to the Ganges on the south. Area, 179 square miles, of which 79 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 77,572, viz. 73,777 Hindus and 3795 Muhammadans. Number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 191, all held in *tálukdári* tenure; forming two estates, owned by the Bisen Kshattriya Rájá of Rámpur, and the Kanhpuria Kshattriya Rájá of Káithaula, both of whom also hold property in other *parganás*.

Rámpurá.—Town in Tonk State, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 57′ 53″ N., long. 76° 7′ 26″ E.; 70 miles south of Jáipur (Jeypore), 90 south-east of Nasírábád (Nusseerábád), 145 west of Agra. Captured by the British in 1804, restored to Holkar in 1805. In 1818, when Holkar's dominions had been conquered by the British, Rámpurá was added as a free gift to the possessions which had been guaranteed in 1817 to Amír Khán, the founder of the Tonk family.

Rámpurá.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 2½ square miles. There are four chiefs. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £410; and tribute of £142 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Rámpur Beauleah.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Rájsháhí District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Ganges, in lat. 24° 22′ 5″ N., and long. 88° 38′ 55″ E. Pop. (1872), 22,291. The seat of administration was transferred to this town from Nattor in 1825. Rámpur Beauleah was first selected by the Dutch in the early part of the last century, for the establishment of a factory; and, subsequently,

for many years it was the headquarters of an English commercial Residency. The town is of modern growth, and is built for the most part on river alluvion; it is liable to encroachments of the Ganges, and has suffered severely from inundations. Municipal income (1876-77), £1111; rate of taxation, 11¾d. per head of population. Rámpur Beauleah conducts a large traffic by river with the railway station of Kushtiá on the opposite bank of the Ganges. In 1876-77, the total exports were valued at £342,000, chiefly silk (£251,000), rice (£21,000), oil-seeds (£7000), hides (£6000), and indigo (£3000). The total imports were valued at £199,000, including sugar (£109,000), salt (£24,000), and piece-goods (£18,000).

Rámpur Hát.—Subdivision of Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 58′ to 24° 31′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 43′ to 88° 9′ E. Instituted in January 1873, in place of the former Subdivision of Kándi. Area of Kándí, 450 square miles; villages, 512; houses, 55,909; pop. (1872), 235,227, of whom 159,273 were Hindus, 74,158 Muhammadans, 5 Christians, and 1791 of other denominations. Persons per square mile, 523; villages per square mile, 1·14; houses per square mile, 124; inmates per house, 4·2; proportion of males in total population, 47·3 per cent. In 1873, Rámpur Hát contained one revenue and magisterial court, a regular police force of 70 men, and a rural police of 1971; cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £2604, 8s.

Rámpur Hát.—Headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, Murshidábád District, Bengal; situated in the extreme west of the District, in lat. 24° 9′ N., and long. 87° 49′ 30″ E. Station on the East Indian Railway; 136 miles from Howrah.

Rámpur Mathura.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 1 mile east of the Chauka and 3 miles west of the Gogra, 44 miles south-east of Sítápur town. Pop. (1869), 2217, residing in 425 mud-built houses. Market; Government school.

Ramrí (*Ramree*).—Island off the coast of British Burma, included in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan. It contains the townships of RAMRI and KYOUK-HPYU, in the latter of which is KYOUK-HPYU TOWN, the headquarters of the District. The island is crossed by a main range of mountains, with a general north-north-west and south-south-east direction, and an elevation above the plain of from 500 to 1500 feet; highest point, 3000 feet. The chief products of Ramrí are timber, rice, indigo, salt, and sugar. Limestone and iron are also found on the island. Ramrí and Cheduba originally formed a tract known as Ramrí District, but both are now incorporated with Kyouk-hpyú District. Lat. 18° 51′ to 19° 24′ N., long. 93° 28′ to 94° E.

Ramrí.—Township in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, about 437 square miles, occupying the southern portion of the island of the same name. Chief products—rice, indigo, and sugar;

in the manufacture of the last, 252 mills were employed in 1874. Limestone is found on the northern and western coasts, and petroleum on the eastern. This township comprises 18 revenue circles, viz. Nga-kho-byeng, Theng-ga-nek, Hún-toung-bhek, Hún-myouk-bhek, Kha-moung-khyoung, Kyouk-khyoung (South), Kyouk-khyoung (North), Le-doung, Kan-daing, Ran-bouk, Kan-gaw, Alay-khyoung, Ran-byai Myo-ma (East), Ran-byai Myo-ma (South), Ran-thek, Theng-bha-kaing, Zi-kywon and Tsa-gú. In 1876-77, the population, composed mainly of Arakanese, numbered 46,838; gross revenue, £23,540. Headquarters at RAMRI TOWN.

Ramrí.—Chief town of the township of the same name; situated in lat. 19° 6′ 30″ N., and long. 93° 53′ 45″ E., near the eastern coast of Ramrí Island, about 13 miles up the Tan, a tidal river, navigable thus far by good-sized boats. The town stands on the eastern side of an amphitheatre formed by numerous low ranges of partially wooded hills separated by small hollows and ravines. During the existence of the Arakan kingdom, it was the seat of the governor of the island, and was then, and is still, called by the Arakanese 'Tan-myo.' After the Burmese conquest, it was retained as the headquarters of the governor, but was known to the Burmese as 'Yan-byai-myo,' which name has been corrupted by Europeans into Ramrí.

Ramrí town was probably in its most flourishing condition about 1805 A.D., when its inhabitants carried on an extensive trade with Bengal, Bassein, and Tavoy. A few years later, it suffered much from the rebellion of Khyeng-bran and from the retaliatory measures of the Burmese. Khyeng-bran appears to have had many adherents in the town, and, after his defeat, large numbers of the inhabitants were killed or forced to fly the country. During the first Anglo-Burmese war, the place was occupied without resistance by the troops under General Macbean, the Burmese having evacuated the strong and judiciously constructed defences before the arrival of the British force. One of these defences was an unusually strong stockade, within which all civil and military business had been carried on. On the conquest of Arakan by the British, Ramrí was made the headquarters of a District of the same name, and so remained until 1852, when, in consequence of An and Ramrí being joined together, Kyouk-hpyú, till then the headquarters of An, became the chief town of the new District.

In 1853, the population was estimated at about 9000, of whom nearly two-thirds were Arakanese. On the removal of the headquarters to Kyouk-hpyú, Ramrí sank to the position of the chief station of a township, and has considerably decreased in importance. In 1876-77, it had only 4028 inhabitants, who carry on a coasting trade with Chittagong, Sandoway, and Bassein. The public buildings include a court house, police station, and an old and new market-place.

Rám Sanehí.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Rámnagar, on the east by Nawábganj, on the south by Muzaffarkhána, and on the west by Haidargarh and Bára Bánki *tahsíls*. Area, 588 square miles, of which 375 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 385,410, viz. 333,743 Hindus and 51,667 Muhammadans. Average density of population, 655 per square mile; number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 639. This *tahsíl* comprises the 5 *parganás* of Surájpur, Daryábád, Rudauli, Basorhi, and Mawái Maholára.

Rámtál.—Lake on the Rámthi *nadí* in Dárjíling District, Bengal. As measured on the map, it is 550 yards long, by about 200 yards broad. For 30 or 40 yards from each bank, in the upper part of the lake, dead stumps of trees *in situ* appear above the surface of the water, showing that the Rámtál has increased in depth within the time that such timber can remain under and above water without falling to pieces. For more than a quarter of a mile extends a delta of comparatively modern formation, composed of slate shingle, yearly encroaching on the area of the lake, which, on account of its recent origin, cannot be assigned to glacial action in any form. It seems most probable that both the lake and the huge blocks of sandstone filling its bed are due to landslips from the hill above, which have dammed up the original bed of the stream.

Rámtek.—North-eastern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 131,840, residing in 440 villages or townships and 26,310 houses, on an area of 1071 square miles.

Rámtek.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 24′ N., long. 79° 20′ E.; 24 miles north of Nágpur city. Situated on a gravelly soil, south of a ridge separated by only a few miles of cultivation from the hill and jungle extending to the Sátpuras. Pop. (1872), 7045. Noted for its cultivation of *pán*, which was introduced three centuries ago by an ancestor of the owner of the gardens; large quantities are exported to Seoní, Chhindwárá, Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), Berar, and since the opening of the railway, to Bombay. The trunk line between Jabalpur and Nágpur runs 4 miles west of the town; and from Mansar, on that line, a good road leads through Rámtek to the village of Ambála, where the fair held every November, on the banks of a small lake, attracts nearly 100,000 persons. An excellent bungalow stands on the hill 500 feet above the plain. The official buildings are at the west end of the town. Rámtek has always been held a holy place. The oldest temple appears to be that on the north side of the hill, built of uncemented hewn stones, and, like many ruins in Nágpur and Bhandára Districts, referred to Hemár, Panth, a Bráhman, or, as some say, a Rákshasa. Near it are the modern Parwár temples, a handsome group, enclosed in well-fortified courts. The centre of interest, however, is at the west end of

the hill, where the temple of Ráma (Rámchandra), the tutelary god, stands conspicuous above the rest, overtopping the walls of the citadel. On the south and west, the hill is naturally scarped. The north side has a double line of defence. The inner line belongs to the citadel; the outer one turns towards the south, and, crossing a narrow valley which leads down to Ambála, is continued along the edge of the hill till it joins, at the extreme west point, the more recent walls of the citadel. This outer line, now in ruins, was strongly, though rudely, built by piling ponderous stones on one another. Within it was a considerable village, of which a few traces yet remain. The citadel is at the western extremity of the enclosure, with the chief temples at the apex of the angle. The Ambála road runs under a small wooded hill, crowned by a fortified summer palace, the work of a Rájá of the Súrya-Vansí or Solar race. Then, passing through the town, it winds round the southern ridge of the hill till it is confronted by the embankment of the tank, along which Raghojí I. built a line of defences, with strong bastions flanking the gateway. Within this lies Ambála, with its lake, its bathing *ghâts*, and temples, each belonging to an old Marhattá family. From the western corner of the tank, flights of stone stairs, half a mile in length, lead up to the citadel, passing through the ruined outer line by a narrow gateway. By these steps all pilgrims ascend to worship at the temples. Near the top, on the right, is an ancient open *báolí* or well, with a *dharmsála* or rest-house attached. To the left stand two old temples of Krishna in the form of Narsinha, and opposite to them a plain mosque, built in commemoration of a courtier of Aurangzeb. A flight of steps then leads up to the outer gate, a massive building constructed, like all the outer walls belonging to the citadel, by the first Marhattá ruler. Inside, on the right, are Hindu temples of Naráyan; on the left, temples to which Parwárs annually resort. Within the second line of walls, pierced by the Sinhpur gate, and said to have been built by the Súrya-Vansís, the Marhattás had their arsenal, of which only some ruins of the wall remain. The third court is reached through a fine gateway called the *Bhairava Darwáza;* in this part the walls and bastions restored by the Marhattás are in good repair. The innermost court has on either side the dwellings of the servants of the temples; and at the farther end, the *Gokul Darwáza*, a fantastic building leading to the shrines of Ganpati and Hanumán; and lastly, built on the edge of the bluff, the temple of Ráma. From this inner court another series of stone steps lead down into the town of Rámtek. In the early Marhattá times, two fine old *báolís*, or wells, were discovered here, which had for ages been covered over with earth.

Rámu.—Village and police station in the Subdivision of Cox's Bázár, Chittagong District, Bengal; situated in lat. 21° 25′ N., and long. 92° 8′ 25″ E., upon the Chittagong and Arakan road. Large mart for local trade. Telegraph station; distant 85 miles from Chittagong town.

Ránághát.—Subdivision of Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 53′ to 23° 20′ N., and long. 88° 22′ 30″ to 88° 48′ E.; area, 421 square miles; villages, 503; houses, 50,947; pop. (1872), 226,968, of whom 137,199 were Hindus, 89,494 Muhammadans, 23 Christians, and 252 of other denominations. Average number of persons per square mile, 539; villages per square mile, 1·19; houses per square mile, 121; inmates per house, 4·5; proportion of males, 48·4 per cent. In 1870-71, this Subdivision contained 2 revenue and magisterial courts, with 4 police circles; and maintained a regular police force of 187, and a village watch of 627 men; cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £4108, 8s.

Ránághát.—Municipal town and railway station, situated on the Churní river, Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 10′ 40″ N., long. 88° 36′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 8871. Municipal income (1876-77), £841; rate of taxation, 1s. 10¼d. per head of population.

Ranásam.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Mahi Kántha, Bombay; situated in the Rehwár Subdivision. Pop. (1872), 5329. The principal agricultural products are millets and pulses. The chief is descended from the Ráos of Chandravati, near Mount Abu. His ancestor, Jaipál, migrated from Chandravati to Harol in Mahi Kántha in 1227; and thence, in the 13th generation, Thákur Prithwi Ráj moved to Ghorwára, having received a grant of the neighbouring tracts, which in the course of time were divided among the different branches of the family. The chief has enjoyed semi-independent power since the establishment of his family in Mahi Kántha. The present (1876-77) chief, Thákur Wajesinh, a Rehwár Rájput of the Pramara clan, is sixty years of age, and administers the State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £800; and pays a tribute of £37 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 6s. to the British Government. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. There is one school in the State, with 20 pupils.

Ran-byai-Myoma, East.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated on the eastern shore of Ramrí Island. Pop. (1876-77), 2466; gross revenue, £591.

Ran-byai-Myoma, South.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated on the eastern shore of Ramrí Island. Pop. (1876-77), 4961; gross revenue (inclusive of Ramrí town), £3561.

Ránchi.—Headquarters of Lohárdaga District, and residence of the Commissioner of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, Bengal; situated on the high central plateau of Lohárdaga, in lat. 23° 22′ 37″ N., and long. 85° 22′ 6″ E., with a general elevation of 2100 feet above sea level. Pop. (1872), 12,086; municipal revenue (1876-77), £680; average rate of

taxation, 9d. per head of population. Ránchi is simply a cluster of hamlets, from one of the smallest of which it takes its name. The soil, being a mixture of clay, gravel, and sand, is well suited for the growth of European vegetables, fruits, and flowers. A considerable money-lending business is carried on at Ránchi by bankers from Márwár; the town also forms a distributing centre, for Lohárdaga and the Tributary States, of large quantities of cotton goods imported from Calcutta. Chief buildings—Commissioner's and Deputy Commissioner's offices, court-houses, jail, school-house, and small library maintained by public subscription; two churches and a charity hospital.

Ránder.—Municipal town in the Chorási Subdivision, Surat District, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 12′ N., and long. 72° 51′ E., 3 miles north-west of Surat city, with the river Tápti flowing southwards between. Pop. (1872), 10,280; municipal income, £1380. Ránder is supposed to be one of the oldest places in Southern Guzerat. It is said to have been a place of importance about the beginning of the Christian era, when Broach was the chief seat of commerce in Western India. In the early part of the 13th century, a colony of Arab merchants and sailors is stated to have attacked and expelled the Jains, at that time ruling at Ránder, and to have converted their temples into mosques. Under the name of Náyatá, the Arabs traded to distant countries. In 1514, the traveller Barbosa described Ránder as a rich and agreeable place of the Moors (Náyatás), possessing very large and fine ships, and trading with Malacca, Bengal, Tawasery (Tenasserim), Pegu, Martaban, and Sumatra in all sorts of spices, drugs, silk, musk, benzoin, and porcelain. In 1530, the Portuguese, after sacking Surat, took Ránder. With the growing importance of Surat, Ránder declined in prosperity, and, by the close of the 16th century, became a port dependent on Surat. At present, Borahs of the Sunni sect carry on trade westwards with the Mauritius, and eastwards with Rangoon, Moulmein, Siam, and Singapore. By the opening of the new Tápti Bridge, Ránder is now (1877) closely connected with Surat. Post office and dispensary.

Randhia.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue (1876), £250.

Rángámáti.—Ancient town in Murshidábád District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 1′ 10″ N., and long. 88° 13′ 11″ E., on the right bank of the Bhágirathi, 14 miles below Barhampur.

The yellow clay here rises into bluffs 40 feet high, which form the only elevated ground in the neighbourhood, and are very conspicuous from the river. Few remains have been found except pottery and the traces of buildings, tanks, and wells; but Rángámáti is rich in traditional history. The legend respecting the origin

of the name, which means red earth, is that Bibisan, brother of Rávana, being invited to a feast by a poor Bráhman at Rángámáti, rained gold on the ground as a token of gratitude. By others the miracle is referred to Bhu Deb, who through the power of his *tapasya*, rained gold. Captain Layard, *Bengal Asiatic Society's Journal*, 1853, says:—'Rángámáti, anciently named the city of Kansonapurí (*sic*), is said to have been built many hundred years ago by a famous Mahárájá of Bengal, named Kurun Sen, who resided chiefly at Gaur. Many interesting spots, connected with légends and traditions of the ancient city, are still pointed out, such as the Demon's Mount and the Rájbári, or palace of Kurun Sen. The remains of the greater part of the Rájbári are distinctly traceable on three sides, although now under cultivation; the fourth has disappeared in the river. On the eastern face of the Rájbári, there stood, a few years ago, the ruins of a very old gateway, with two large entrances, called by the people of the neighbouring village of Jadupur, *burj*, or the tower. It has now entirely disappeared, having crumbled away with the falling bank into the rapid stream below.' Captain Layard also gives the name as Karn-sona-kaghar. This would correctly represent Karna-suvarna, the name of an ancient kingdom in Bengal, visited by the Chinese pilgrim Hiouen Thsang (*circ.* 639 A.D.). This kingdom apparently included Bardwan and Bírbhúm. The name is the same, though Captain Layard's site is probably that of a later capital. See also Fergusson, *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, new series, vol. vi. p. 248; and Captain F. Wilford, *Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, ix. p. 89.

Mr. Long, in his essay on 'The Banks of the Bhágirathi,' states that Rángámáti formed one of the ten *faujdáris* into which Bengal was divided under Musalmán rule. Its Hindu *zamíndár* was a considerable person; and on the occasion of the great Punyá at Mutijhil in 1767, received a *khilát* worth Rs. 7278, or as much as the *zamíndár* of Nadiyá. The site of Rángámáti was at one time selected, in preference to Barhampur, as being a high and healthy spot for the erection of barracks. In 1846, it was still resorted to as a sanitarium, and was a favourite place for picnic parties and shooting excursions; snipe and partridge abound. The undulations of the land and the general scenery reminded Mr. Long of England. The East India Company had once a silk factory at Rángámáti, which was sold in 1835, together with 1500 *bighas* of land attached to it, for £2100.

Rángámáti.—Administrative headquarters of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal, and one of the chief markets for the sale of hill produce. In 1872-73, a Gúrkha settlement was established here, consisting almost entirely of soldiers discharged from the frontier force as physically unfit for service. In 1873-74, this settlement was increased by a colony of 78 Gúrkhas from Khagoria, who were unable to endure the deadly

climate of that place. Government middle-class English school. The telegraph line between Rángámáti and Chittagong was closed in May 1875. Lat. 22° 41′ 5″ N., long. 91° 49′ 50″ E.

Rángámáti.—Village in Goálpára District, Assam; situated in lat. 26° 19′ N., and long. 90° 48′ E., on the north or right bank of the Brahmaputra. An important outpost of the Muhammadans at the beginning of the last century, and the ruins of their fortifications can still be seen.

Rangánadi.—River in the north of Lakhimpur District, Assam, which rises in the Daphla Hills, and, flowing south, empties itself into the Subánsirí below Gorámur. It is navigable by small boats all the year through, and is largely used by traders from Gauháti and Goálpára, who come up in the cold season to buy rape-seed and *mejáti.*

Rangaswámi.—Peak in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras; situated near the Gazzalháthi Pass. Lat. 11° 27′ 20″ N., long. 77° 20′ E.; height above sea level, 5948 feet.

Rángi.—Chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces, comprising 17 villages. The soil is sandy, producing rice, and in some places sugar-cane. The eastern portion is hilly, with a good deal of teak, besides *sáj* and *mahuá* trees. Rángi, the principal village, situated in lat. 20° 21′ N., and long. 80° 13′ E., has a weekly market; and at Ingara, an ancient temple contains a sculpture of a warrior with a short straight sword and shield.

Rángia.—Village and police station in Kámrúp District, Assam; on the Baráliya river, about 20 miles north-north-west of Gauháti. Lat. 26° 26′ N., long. 91° 40′ E. A centre of local trade.

Rángír.—Ancient village in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; 22 miles south-east of Ságar town. The fair, held every March, attracts nearly 70,000 persons.

Rangmágiri.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, on the southern slope of the Mimanrám Mountain. The scene of the murder of the Survey coolie in March 1871, which led to the Gáro expedition of the following year, and the ultimate subjection of the hill tribes to British rule.

END OF VOLUME VII.

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